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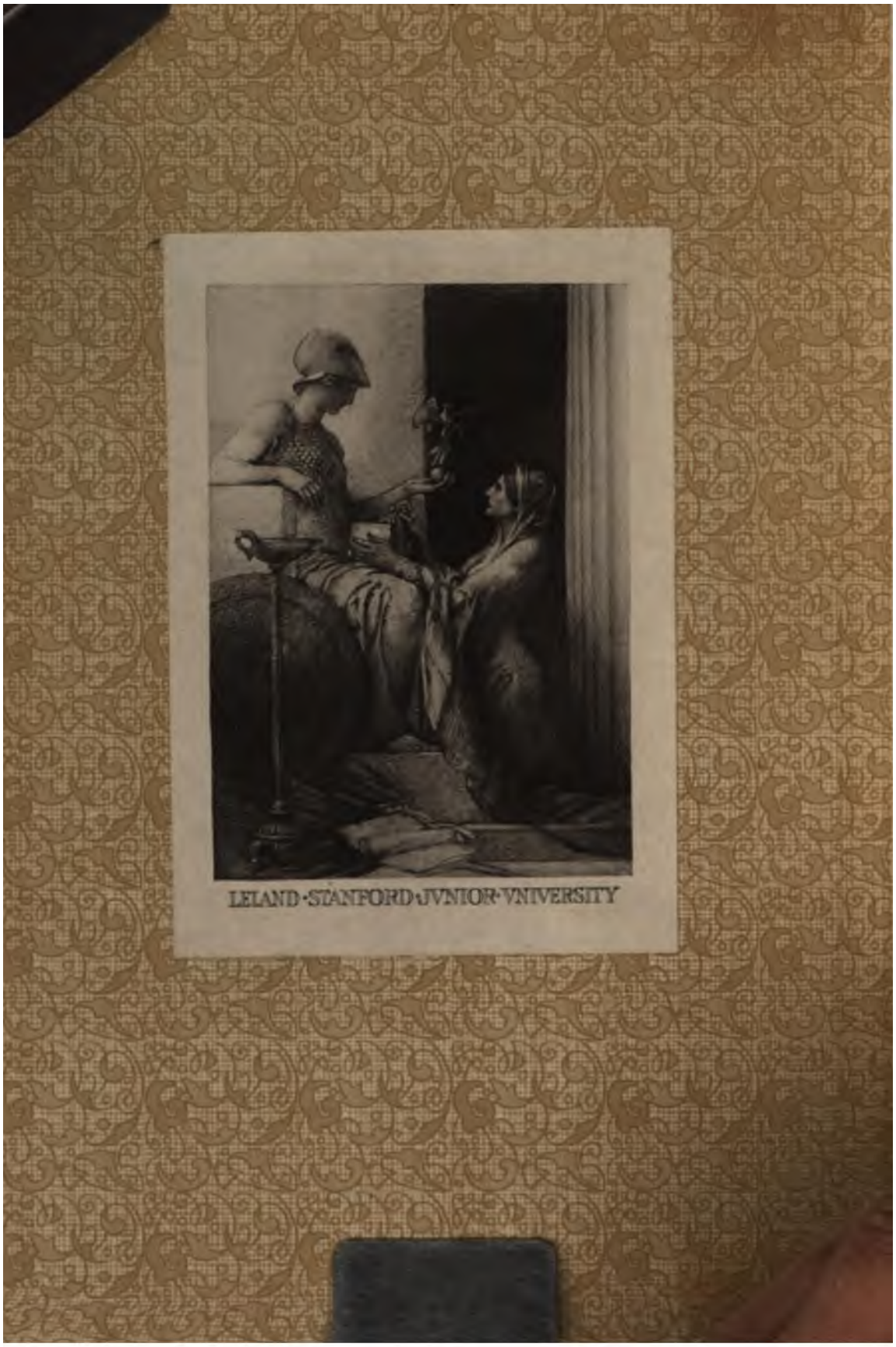
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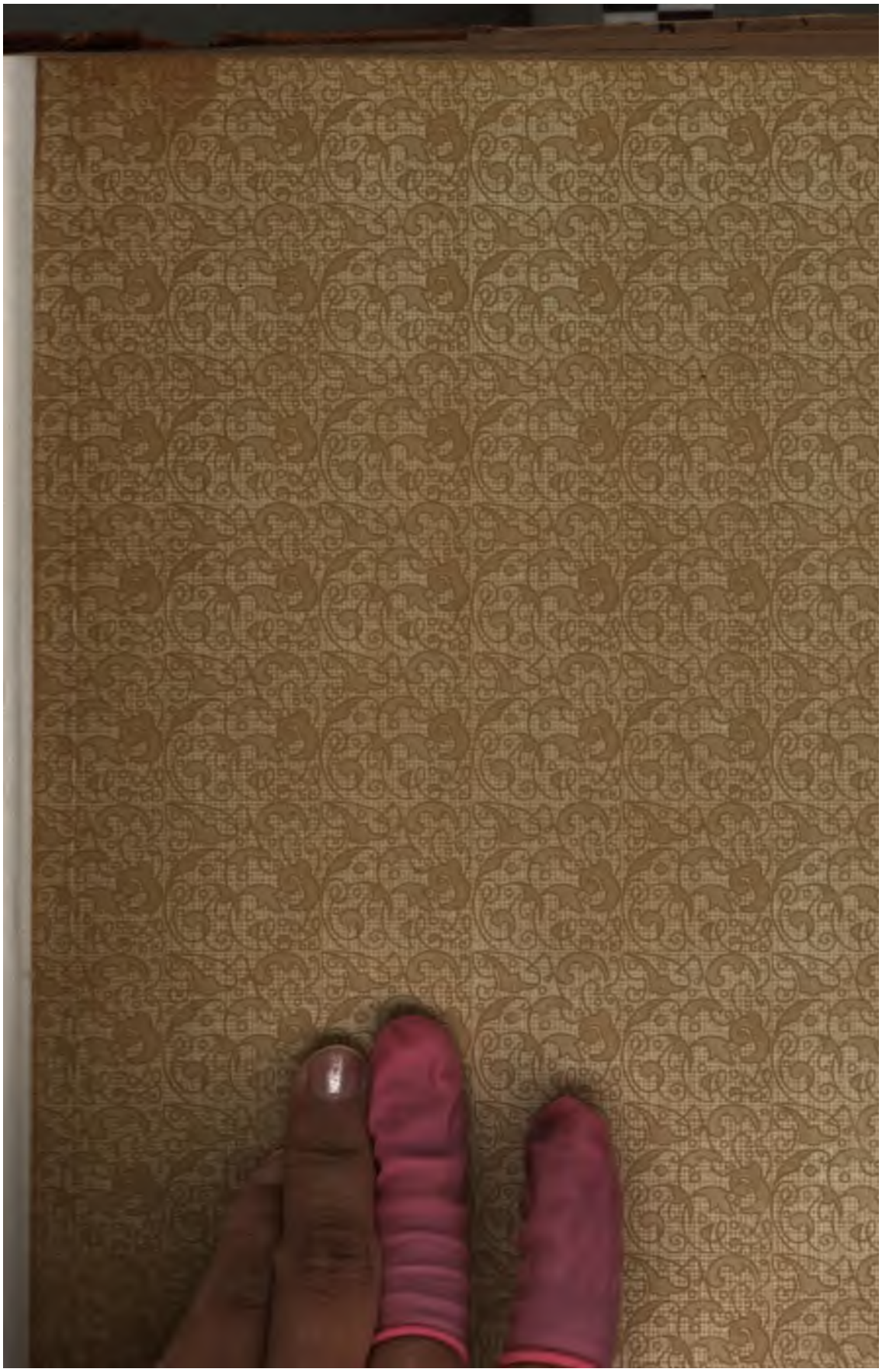

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The World's Work

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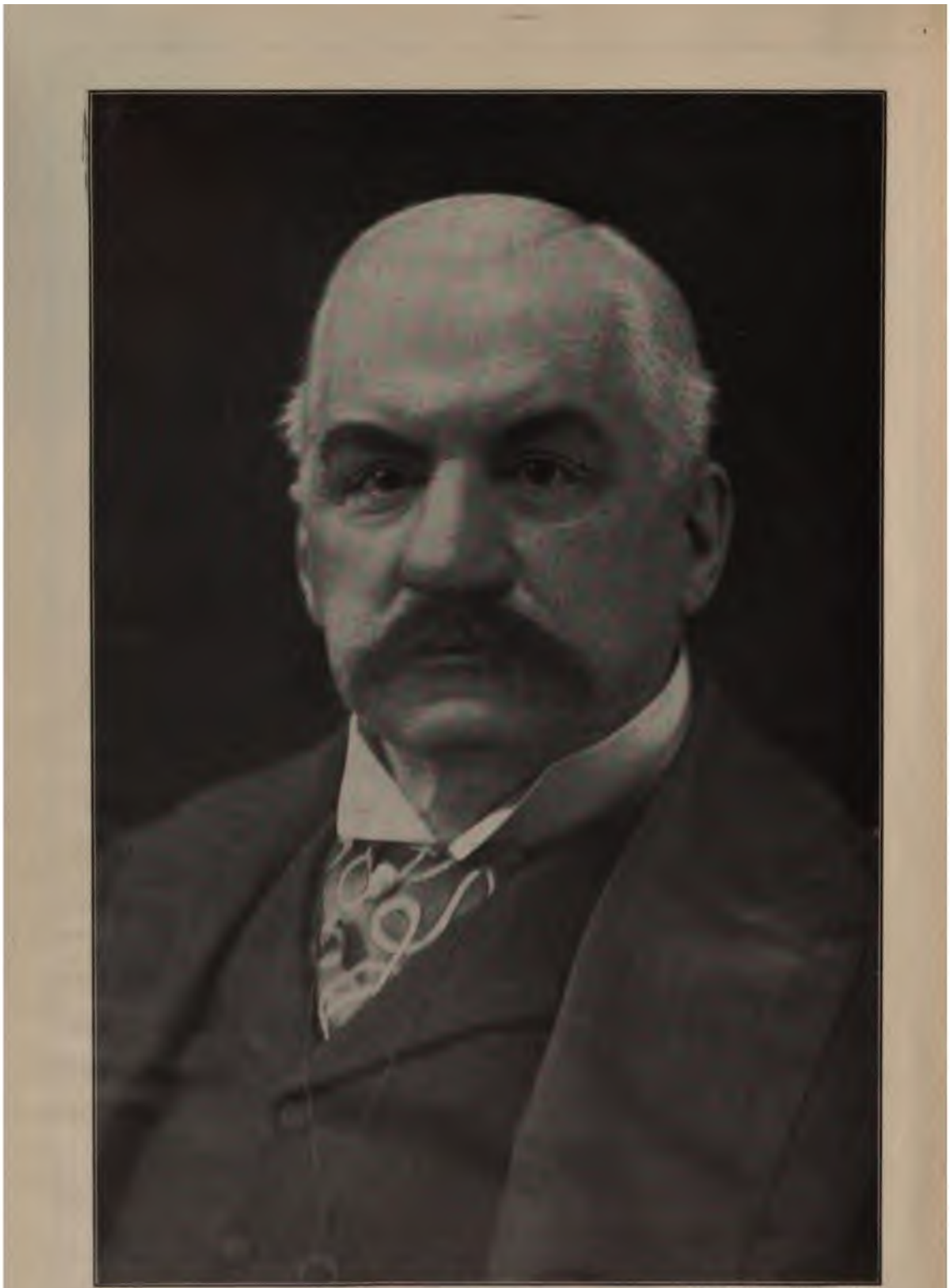

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THE LATE J. P. MORGAN

THE MOST POWERFUL FINANCIAL LEADER OF OUR TIME, WHOSE GENIUS FOR ORGANIZATION AND WHOSE DOMINATING PERSONALITY CHIEFLY PRODUCED THE ERA OF CORPORATE CONSOLIDATION WHICH IS THE MOST SIGNIFICANT MODERN ECONOMIC PHENOMENON

THE
WORLD'S WORK

MAY, 1913

VOLUME XXVI NUMBER 1

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

THE FATES have so far been very kind to Mr. Wilson's Administration, which is another way of saying that he is energetically and efficiently doing his tasks; for the Fates help them that help themselves. The President and his Cabinet have made a distinctly and uniformly good impression on the country.

Mr. Wilson's refusal to give his time to office-seekers; the decorous but rigid refusal of the Secretaries to become office-brokers; the evident aim to secure efficiency by their appointments; the clear-cut and quietly announced policies of the President, such as his repudiation of "dollar diplomacy"; the conduct of Secretary Garrison in visiting the flooded cities of the Middle West and his promptly announced policy regarding the army; Secretary Daniels's requiring sea-duty of naval officers, thus breaking up the long residence of many of them at Washington; Secretary Houston's far-reaching constructive plans for organizing and developing rural life; the vigorous grip that Postmaster-General Burleson has taken on his tangled department and his refusal to turn it into an office-brokerage shop; the President's own quiet, determined, diligent doing of his vast business and his refusal to go speech-making; his disposition to work in hearty coöperation and consultation with Congress — these and many more such actions reveal the admirable spirit and ability of the new Administration.

It is an interesting proof of the excellent working of our governmental machinery as well as of the character and common sense of the American people that a change not only of the high personnel of the Government but a change of party control brings no jar. In those important offices, where one set of men now work instead of another set of men who worked there a few months ago, the public business goes on as before — in some of them better, perhaps in some less well; but it all goes on smoothly.

Reefs and storms will be encountered, of course. It would be as unwise to predict fair weather for four years as it would be wicked to predict bad weather: the wise man waits and hopes and — helps. But it can be safely set down already that the new Administration has made an admirable beginning, and the public opinion of the country has cheerfully responded, by favorable comment and, still more, by its silent approval. It is a distinctly auspicious beginning.

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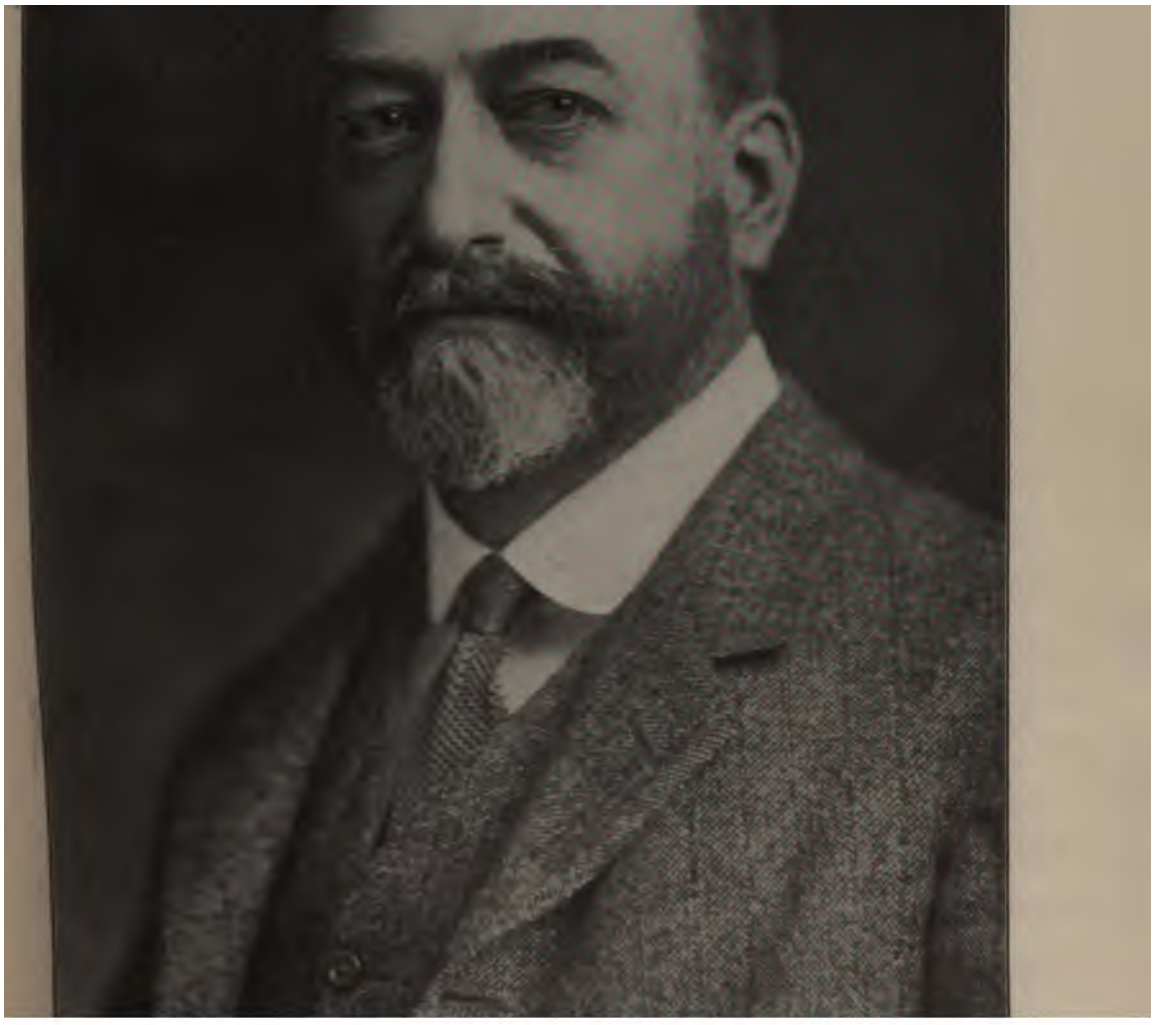
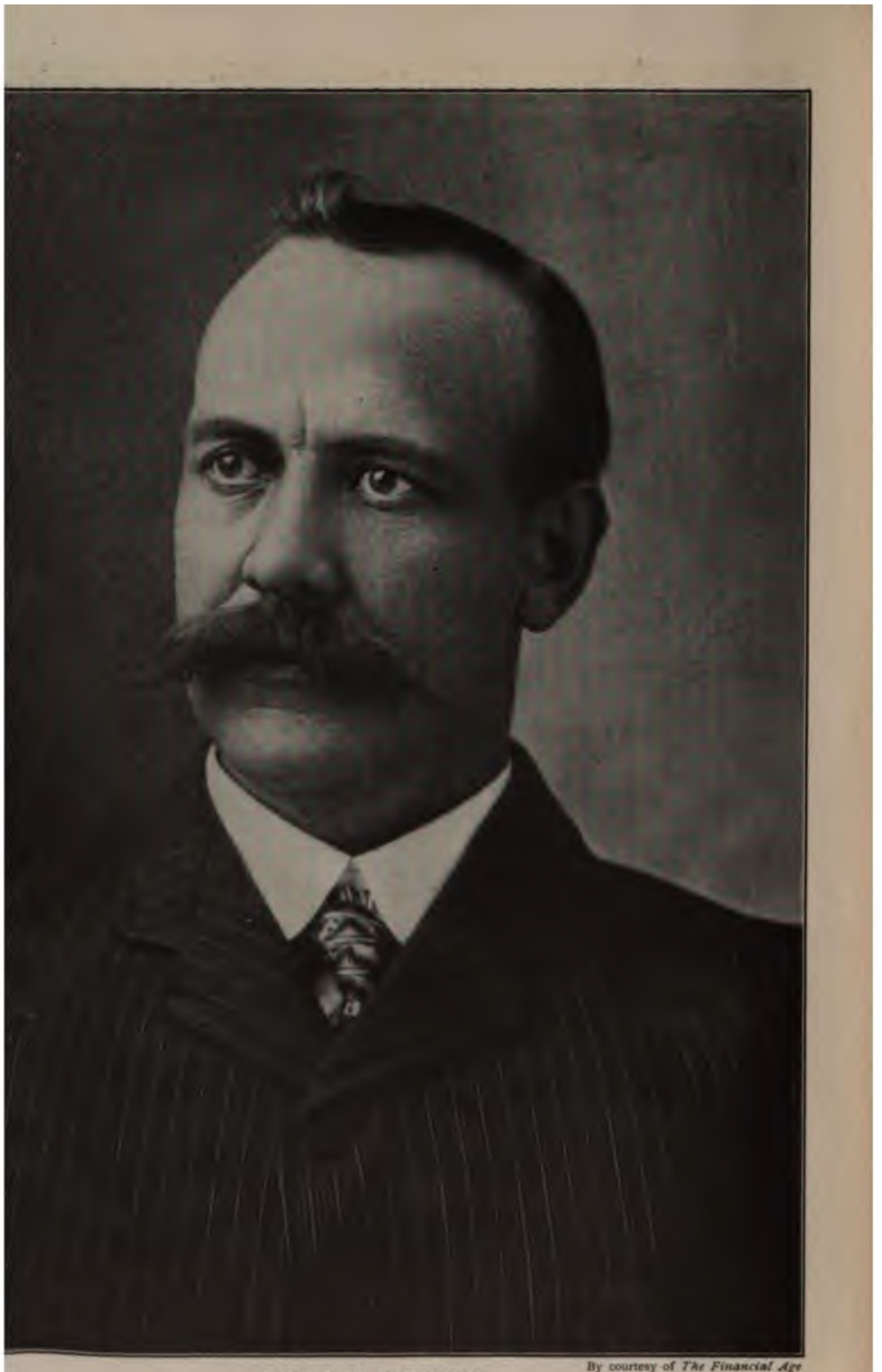
PROF. FRANK JOHNSON GOODNOW

EATON PROFESSOR OF ADMINISTRATIVE LAW AND MUNICIPAL SCIENCE IN COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, WHO WAS RECENTLY APPOINTED ADVISER TO THE GOVERNMENT OF CHINA TO AID IN THE REFORM OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC





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MR. J. N. DOLLEY

E BANK COMMISSIONER OF KANSAS AND AUTHOR OF THE FIRST "BLUE-SKY LAW" TO
THE SALE OF WILD-CAT STOCKS BY REQUIRING ALL STOCK BROKERS DOING BUSINESS
IE STATE TO REGISTER AND SUBMIT TO AN INVESTIGATION OF THEIR STANDING

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MR. CARTER GLASS

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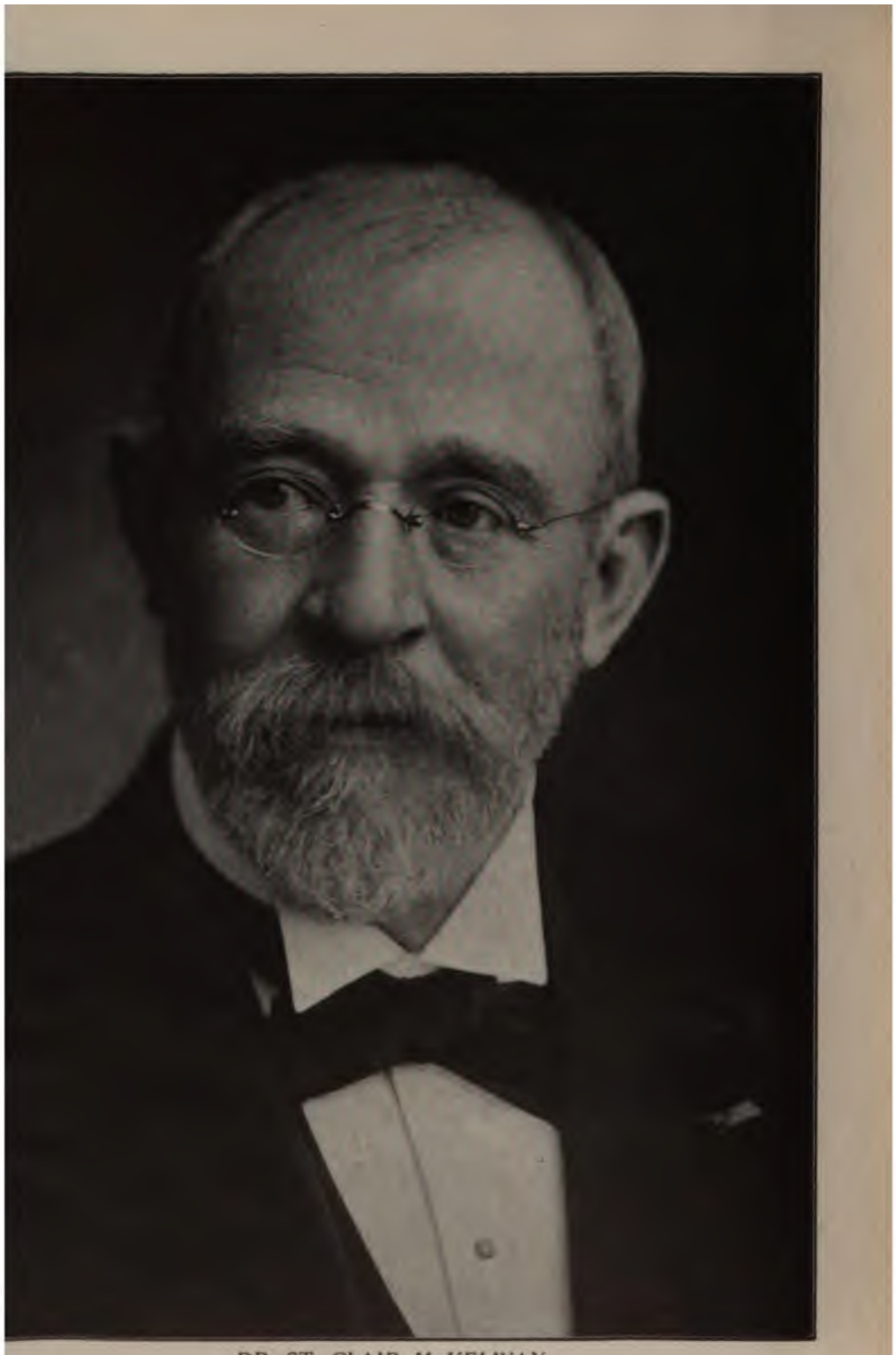
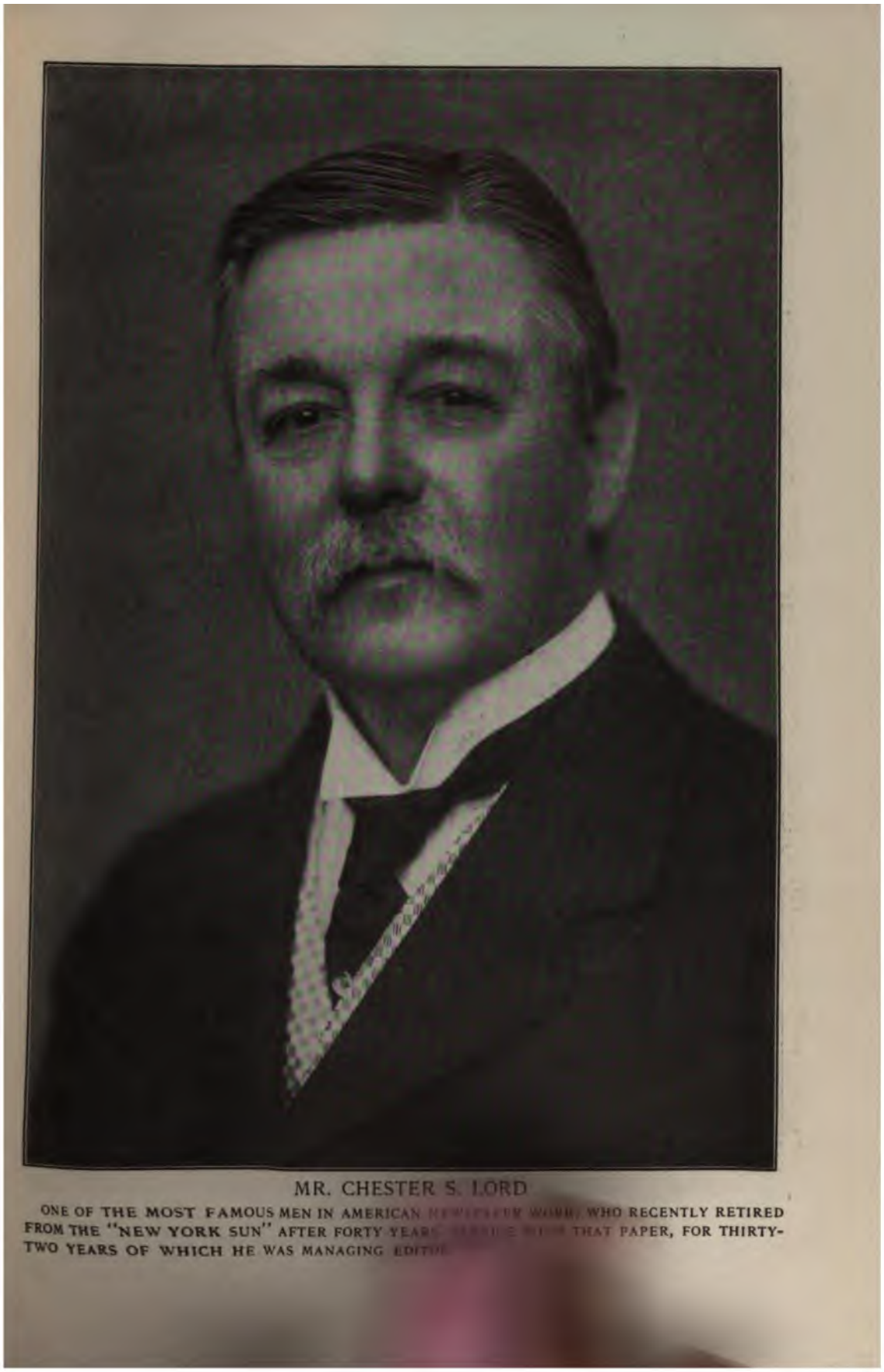


DR. ST. CLAIR McKELWAY

DITOR OF THE "BROOKLYN EAGLE" AND DEAN OF THE NEWSPAPER CRAFT OF GREATER
V YORK, WHO WAS RECENTLY ELECTED CHANCELLOR OF THE BOARD OF REGENTS OF
UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, AFTER THIRTY YEARS' SERVICE AS REGENT

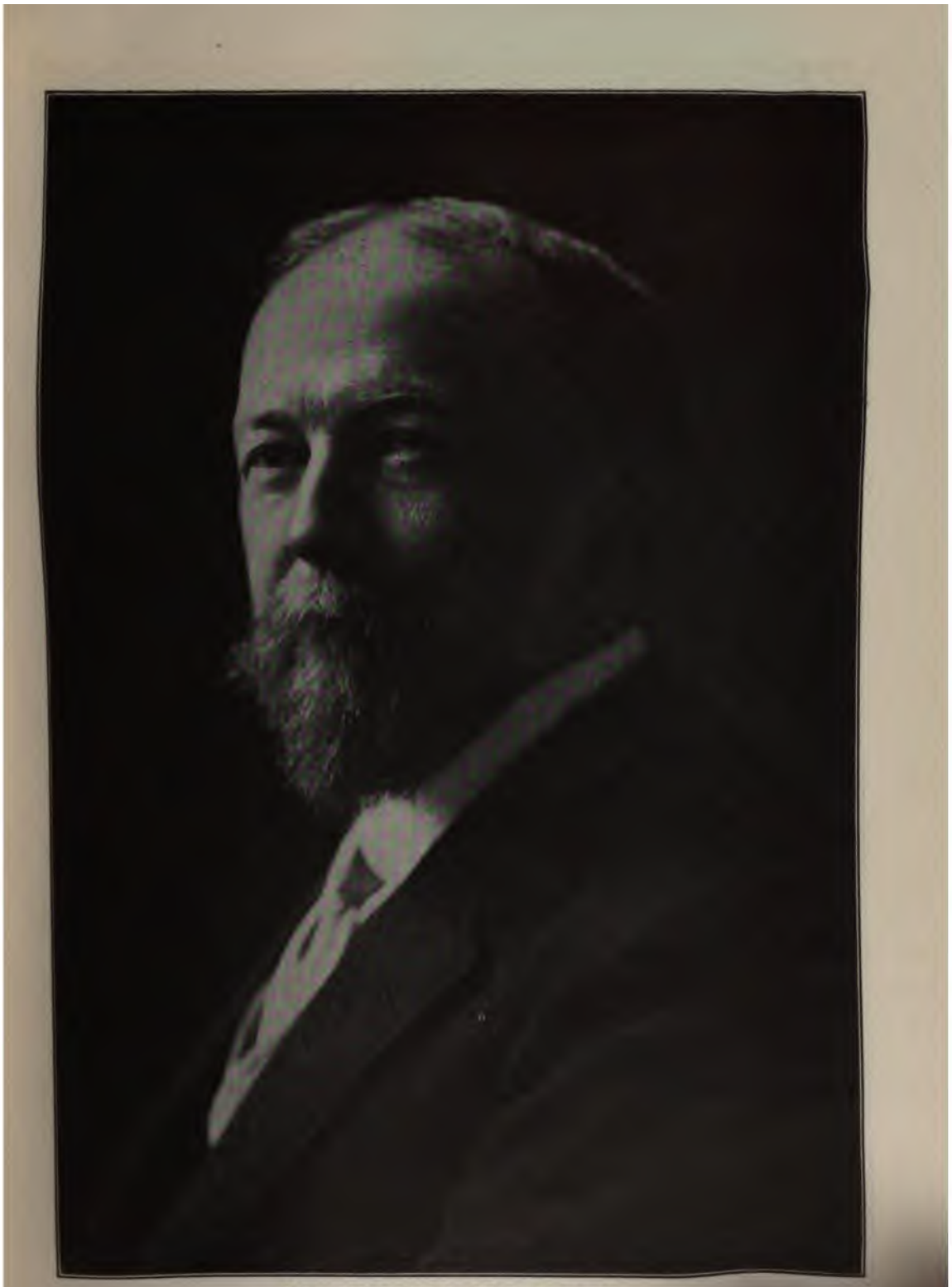


MR. CHESTER S. LORD

ONE OF THE MOST FAMOUS MEN IN AMERICAN NEWSPAPER WORK, WHO RECENTLY RETIRED FROM THE "NEW YORK SUN" AFTER FORTY YEARS' SERVICE WITH THAT PAPER, FOR THIRTY-TWO YEARS OF WHICH HE WAS MANAGING EDITOR

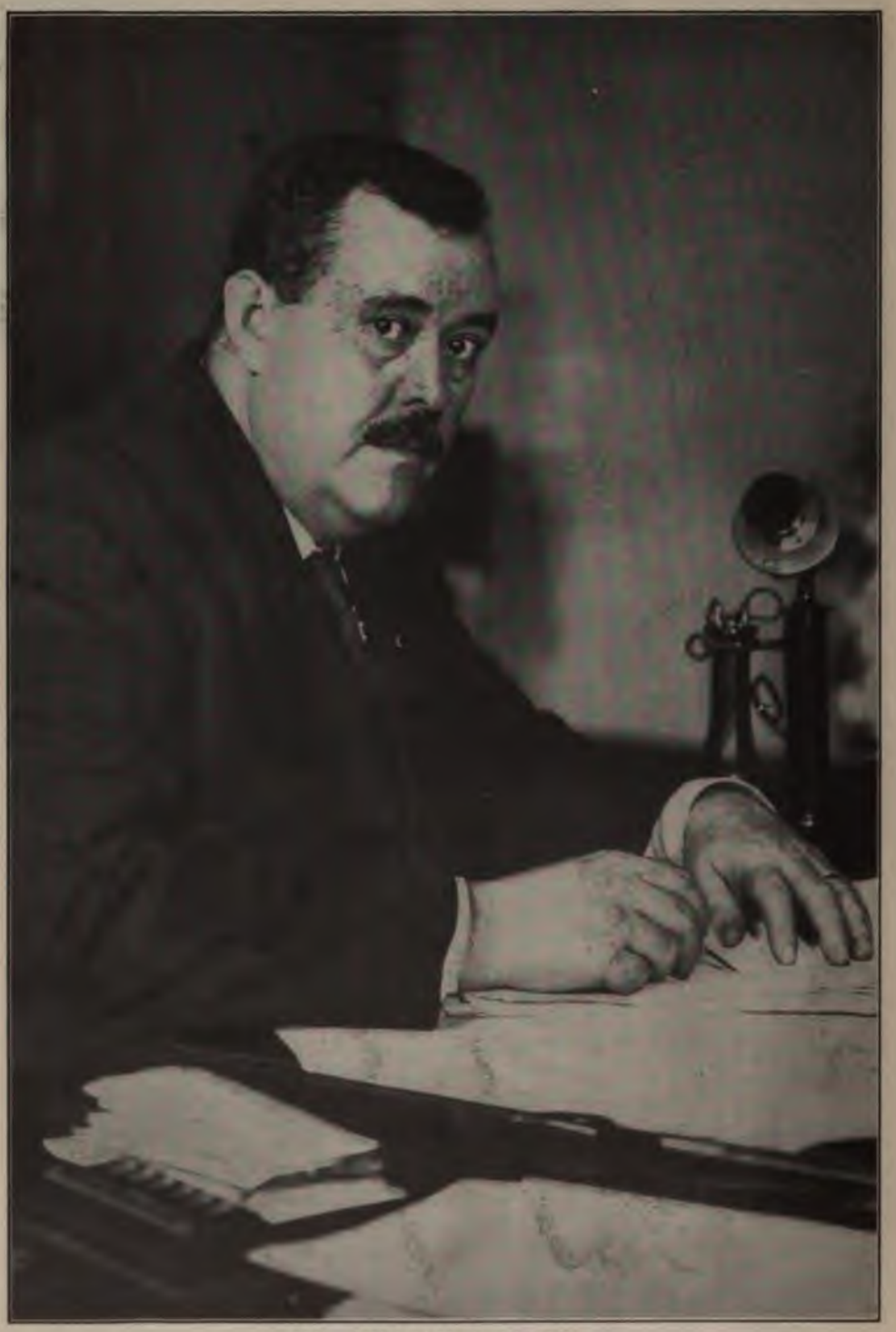
MISS MABEL T. BOARDMAN

THE CHAIRMAN OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS NATIONAL RELIEF BOARD, WHICH ADMINISTERED, AT PRESIDENT WILSON'S REQUEST, THE FUNDS FOR THE RELIEF OF THE SUFFERERS IN THE FLOODS IN THE OHIO RIVER VALLEY



MR. CHARLES LATHROP PACK

PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL CONSERVATION CONGRESS WHICH WILL MEET THIS YEAR IN WASHINGTON AND WHICH WILL DISCUSS PLANS OF FOREST PRESERVATION AND [illegible] OF WATER-POWER USE AND REGULATION



MR. WILLIAM J. FLYNN

THE NEW CHIEF OF THE FEDERAL SECRET SERVICE, WHOSE ADVENTUROUS EXPLOITS IN PURSUIT OF COUNTERFEITERS INCLUDE THE CAPTURE AND CONVICTION OF SOME OF THE LEADERS OF THE AMERICAN "BLACK HAND"

[SEE PAGE 33]

MR. JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.

WHOSE ACTIVE AND GENEROUS SUPPORT OF THE MOVEMENT TO REMOVE THE CAUSES OF THE "WHITE SLAVE" TRAFFIC IS LARGELY RESPONSIBLE FOR THE WIDE SCOPE OF THE RECENT INVESTIGATIONS IN NEW YORK AND CHICAGO

MR. JOHN FOX, JR.

WHOSE FIRST NOVEL IN FOUR YEARS, "THE HEART OF THE HILLS," RENEWS HIS WIDE POPULARITY AS A GOOD STORY TELLER AND AS THE INTERPRETER OF THE SPIRIT OF THE CUMBERLAND MOUNTAIN FOLK

PRESIDENT A. LAWRENCE LOWELL

OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY, WHO HAS MODIFIED THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM OF STUDY, PROVIDED FOR A FRESHMAN DORMITORY, AND SO ALTERED THE SPIRIT OF THE STUDENT BODY THAT THE AVERAGE OF SCHOLARSHIP HAS RISEN GREATLY

THE GROWTH OF AMERICAN CITIES

UPPER PICTURE: THE BUSINESS CENTRE OF PASADENA, CAL., IN 1888. LOWER PICTURE: THE SAME VIEW IN 1910. THE POPULATION OF PASADENA INCREASED FROM 9,117 IN 1900 TO 30,291 IN 1910, OR 232 PER CENT.

THE TWO BIG TASKS OF CONGRESS

THE tug-of-war now comes with the reduction of the tariff. This difficult task is at once a great opportunity and a difficult necessity. For, of all subjects (not excluding even the making of appointments to office), this is the most hazardous, politically the most dangerous, and, in general, the most heavily "loaded" of all public subjects. If the tariff were eliminated from our political history, our political history would be a simple story; for it has been the mother of the largest brood of our troubles for the greater part of a century.

The duty of reducing the rates equitably — that is, substantially but not ruinously — is now undertaken with intelligence, with diligence, and with resolution. From whatever point of view it be regarded, mistakes will be made. There will be fierce criticism, even bitter feeling, aroused. The necessary effect on some branches of business will be bad — for a few persons, for a short time; for some permanently; for old abuses yield somebody a profit. The general effect will be to cause a certain hesitation in commercial and financial life — a part of it a wise hesitation, much more of it mere groundless fear, the contagion of uncertainty. The commercial world, at least a part of it, must readjust itself to new conditions.

But the consumer, which is to say the whole people, will be helped by a judicious readjustment. Commerce itself will receive a large benefit by the substitution of natural for artificial forces. Of the economic righteousness of judicious reductions in many of the present rates, no man who has a firm grasp on commercial facts can have a doubt.

In discussing the disturbance that changes in duties make, it is too much the fashion to consider only those changes that do damage to some group of manufacturers and too little the fashion to consider those changes that will be of great benefit to a larger number of manufacturers as well as to consumers. For every one man who is "hit" by reductions, there are ten or twenty or a hundred who are helped. We are far too likely to conduct all our tariff discussion with the *status quo* as the point of departure. The *status quo* is, in many respects, not a normal condition, but a highly artificial condition. The manufacturers that will be helped far outnumber those that will be hurt.

And it is encouraging to see that the commercial world has so far behaved with great good sense, good sense that points hopefully to our weathering this tariff storm without serious disturbance. This is another proof that, when we undertake even the most difficult tasks with reasonableness and with honesty and with resolution, we can always count on the great reserves of character and even self-denial that distinguish the American people and make our democracy the most reasonable and satisfactory scheme of government that men have yet invented or evolved.

II

Following the tariff, will come some change in our currency and banking laws. This is another long-deferred and difficult task. But we have been approaching it so gradually, and discussion and events have so well prepared the ground, that there is hope that this, too, may be accomplished without rude shocks to the current business of the country.

If these two long-standing and difficult tasks be done with reasonable success, the new Administration will have passed two dangers that beset it and will have done two most serious and helpful duties to our commercial and financial life and to the American people.

THE ORGANIZATION OF COUNTRY LIFE

THE organization of country life — these words have been worn so threadbare that we fail to take in their full meaning or to be thrilled by them. But, if country life can be properly organized, the most helpful task in our world will have been done — or begun; for it is a process, like all other normal growths, that will never end.

It is cheerful news that Secretary Houston, of the Department of Agriculture, regards this large piece of constructive work as his

especial duty and opportunity; and the President, of course, is of a like mind.

When you come to think of it, the essential difference between the town and the country is this: one is organized and the other is not. The town *is* organization. Street-cars, the very streets themselves, banks, churches, exchanges, clubs, libraries, sewers, water, shops — all these denote organization. It is by these that men do their business, live their lives with the least waste of time and effort, and enjoy what we call "civilization." Everything in the town is organized, correlated, conducted, not on an individual but on a community basis.

On the other hand, the farmer as a rule must yet do everything on an individual basis, or too nearly on an individual basis. He grows his crop, harvests it, gets it to market, sells it; he buys his necessities individually; he does his chores individually; he is a man far too much by himself, far too much deprived of the economic and social advantages of combined action. This sums up his disadvantages. Now there are, of course, in many parts of the United States, in spite of our backwardness in coöperation, many successful organizations, some for selling, some for buying, some for both, some for other economic duties, some for social help of many sorts. But the great mass of our country folk are yet unorganized.

The Department of Agriculture has at once set about the task of finding out what sort of organizations exist and do good service in the several parts of the country — how they work, what they achieve, how they were begun, and how more like them may be started.

This is the first step toward encouraging the multiplication of such organizations as have grown up out of the necessities of the people and have proven their practical worth. In Minnesota, it is a coöperative store or a coöperative grain elevator; somewhere else, it is a coöperative dairy; somewhere else, coöperative selling activity by truck-growers; somewhere else, organizations for social and intellectual help and pleasure. In one community, it may be an agricultural college that has led the way; in another, a grange, or a farmers' union; in another, a women's club; in another, the Young Men's Christian Association; in another, a preacher, or a teacher; in others, the whole people without definite leadership — for one good purpose here, for another good purpose there.

Now if the Department of Agriculture, after it collects accurate information about all these agencies and forces each working in its own way but all toward the same great task — if, along with this investigation, it can use the knowledge and authority of the Government to stimulate and to coördinate them, a great movement toward a general organization of country life throughout the United States will have been begun.

This is not spectacular work; but, if there be work of greater value to the producing part of the population and for the building up of our permanent prosperity and for the well-being of the people, you will find it difficult to name it.

And we have come to a time when it is practicable. The people thoroughly understand the necessity of making life in the country profitable and comfortable for the mass of industrious men — the necessity of removing the economic and social hindrances which have come, in a perfectly natural way, with the rapid development of the town. If events could have been ordered so as to present an unparalleled opportunity to Secretary Houston they could not have been better ordered. It is an opportunity for constructive and permanent work in nation-building. His promptness in seeing it and in proceeding to undertake it shows a grasp on the fundamental economic tasks of our time and country.

THE PASSING OF THE MORGAN EPOCH

THE death of J. Pierpont Morgan removed one of the great men of our time. He was one of the strongest characters not only of our country but of our era, a real world-figure. And his dominant and at times domineering personality was the key to his character and to his career. What he did he did by the force of his mind and will.

It might be called an accident of birth and of his early start in life that he entered the world of finance. He might conceivably have been a man of action in some other field of large endeavor in which

he would have won eminence. Of course, he became a man of great wealth. Yet his personal fortune was never as great as the fortunes of several other Americans. He did not care for money merely to accumulate it; and he always exerted a power in the financial and industrial world far out of proportion to his own fortune. He persuaded men; he compelled men; he led men; he dominated men. There were several times in our financial history when, by his personal influence, he prevented a panic. There were times when he threw his great influence to the patriotic service of the Government. For he was both a constructive and a patriotic man.

II

He was born in Hartford in 1837. His father was a merchant at that time, but a few years later he became a partner of Mr. George Peabody and established a banking house in London under the name of J. S. Morgan & Co. It was as a result of this move that J. P. Morgan finished his education in Germany. After a few years of clerical work in the banking business, he helped to organize a small and unimportant Wall Street house under the name of Dabney, Morgan & Co., founded in Civil War times. Eight years later, he made his first public appearance as a financier and banker of importance. It is characteristic perhaps that this first appearance was in the nature of a campaign against Gould and Fisk, who were exploiting for their own purposes a small and unimportant railroad called the Albany & Susquehanna. Under the leadership of Mr. Morgan, this railroad was rescued from the spoilers and sold to the Delaware & Hudson, where it still remains. That episode is said to have been the reason why the powerful banking house of Drexel & Company in Philadelphia sought an alliance with Mr. Morgan and made him head of the New York house of Drexel, Morgan & Co.

The character of the house seems never to have varied. It was founded at the end of an epoch in which the habit of finance was to plunder and destroy, for the personal aggrandisement of the leaders of the financial world. The Morgan firm had the opposite policy. It never desired to be known as a leader of speculative finance. It always denied strongly that it made or unmade markets. It drew a sharp line between the constructive credit-creating facilities of a banking house and the purely mercenary profit-seeking policies of a brokerage house. It announced its willingness at all times to enter into and carry through to completion any great constructive plan of finance for the benefit of the Government, city, corporation, or individual, if that plan and policy demanded simply the use of banking facilities.

Thus, early in its career, the house undertook the task of selling in Europe a very large block of stock for the New York Central Railroad, at a time when American markets could not have absorbed the stock. This was probably one of the most important railroad transactions ever carried on by Mr. Morgan both because it demonstrated the banking ability of his house and because it established him definitely as the fiscal agent of the Vanderbilt system.

Similarly, in the period between 1880 and 1890, Mr. Morgan became the prime agent in negotiations between the railroads which at that time were engaged in destructive competition. He was the father of the idea of the "gentlemen's agreement," whereby railroads which had been in the habit of fighting pitched battles amongst themselves for traffic agreed to maintain rates and to abstain, so far as possible, from attempting to cripple or destroy their rivals.

In 1893, the activities of the Morgan house touched Government activities. In that year, the treasury of the United States was practically exhausted, on account of withdrawals of gold for domestic purposes and for shipment. A syndicate in which Mr. Morgan coöperated with the American representatives of the Rothschilds stepped in and offered to supply to the Government about $65,000,000 in gold, and to take in exchange about $62,000,000 of Government bonds. In two months the export of gold was stopped by the operations of this syndicate and by the end of four months free gold in the treasury had reached the point of safety.

A somewhat similar episode took place in the next year. These two syndicate operations brought Mr. Morgan directly in contact with and made him a part of the Government finances.

III

In the seven or eight years following 1893 the constructive genius of Mr. Morgan was seen at its best. When great railroads like the Atchison, the Northern Pacific, the Erie, the Southern Railway, the Union Pacific, the Reading, and others of their type, fell into bankruptcy or ruin as the result of the great depression of 1893, it came to be the habit of all syndicates and protective committees to turn to Mr. Morgan. As the skies began to clear he carried through the reorganizations of all these great systems with the exception of the Union Pacific. His power and prestige grew year by year, and he seemed to be able to command unlimited amounts of cash and unlimited supplies of credit both at home and abroad. While other bankers wrestled with one or two systems, the Morgan house went forward with the reorganizations of half a dozen such systems at one time. It has often been pointed out that in these reorganizations a plentiful supply of water remained in the capital of the new companies, but the fact also remains that almost without exception these reorganizations have weathered the storms that have since intervened, and still remain solvent, if not powerful, corporations.

Success in the reorganization of these fallen railroads urged Mr. Morgan forward to other accomplishments. In the McKinley Presidency, he became known as an organizer of great industrial enterprises; and the climax of his career as a promoter and creator of corporations was reached when, in 1899, he gathered together a group of competing steel companies and created and floated successfully the United States Steel Corporation, which remains to this day the largest corporation in the United States, if not in the world. He followed this success by the flotation of the securities of the International Harvester Company, the International Mercantile Marine, the North American Company, and half a dozen less important enterprises of an industrial and public utility character.

The power of the Morgan house seemed to suffer a temporary eclipse in 1903 with the apparent collapse of the United States Steel Corporation, the International Mercantile Marine, and many other merger companies. When the Steel Corporation passed the dividends on its common stock and this stock dropped below $10 a share, many people felt that the end of J. P. Morgan & Co. was not far off. The outcome proved the weakness of this theory. The temporary eclipse of Mr. Morgan, however, brought to the front, as a leading financier, the late E. H. Harriman. Mr. Harriman had confined his efforts largely to the building up of a railroad empire and the creation of a great banking power. In a battle in 1901 between Mr. Morgan and Mr. Hill on one side and Mr. Harriman on the other, the Hill-Morgan forces had retained control of the Northern Pacific, but in order that this end might be accomplished the financial world was plunged into a brief but spectacular and dangerous panic. The battle was probably a drawn battle; but out of it Mr. Harriman emerged much bigger than he had been before, and his growth from that time to his death in 1909 was one of the marvelous chapters in the annals of American business history.

The recovery of Mr. Morgan from the boom period of 1903 to 1907 was as spectacular as his eclipse had been. The great expansion era culminated in a crash in the panic of 1907, when the credit facilities of the Nation broke down under the great burden of expansion and under the action of the Government under Mr. Roosevelt. It seemed at that time as though, for lack of a central controlling force, the banks of the United States were trying to tear one another down and were likely to bring the whole financial world into ruin. At that moment, when all men seemed about to start a scramble for their own safety without regard to the public welfare, Mr. Morgan came to the front, as he had come in 1893 and on many other lesser occasions, and assumed the financial leadership of the country.

At his office and library, he conferred day and night with the heads of all the banks, with the greatest private capitalists in the country, with the officials of the Government responsible for finance; and he personally made the policies, and put them into execution, which arrested the money crisis of 1907 and gave the business world a chance to get out of its troubles by a slow, if painful, process of liquidation of its resources.

IV

It has often been said that this episode was the crown of Mr. Morgan's career; and perhaps he will be remembered more for this than for any other of his accomplishments. However that may be, it is agreed by all that no other man at that time could have assumed the financial leadership of the country as Mr. Morgan assumed it.

That panic made a policy which has been followed by the house of Morgan from that day to this. It seems to have shown a necessity for concentrated leadership of the banking world. Recognizing the fact that Mr. Morgan personally could not live forever, and that no other single man seemed likely to be able to fill his place, the Morgan house set to work so to concentrate the banking power of New York City that it would act as a unit in any great emergency, or on any great measure that might confront it. To that end, half a dozen of the largest banks and trust companies in the United States were brought either directly under the control of J. P. Morgan & Co., or into such close affiliation with that firm that they would undoubtedly act as a unit in any such emergency or task.

Thus was created that concentrated money power which has come to be popularly known as a money trust. It is hardly probable that it will be able to maintain itself hereafter in face of the loss of its leader and its presiding genius and in the face of a public clearly hostile to it. Be that as it may, the fact remains that here, without the usual corporate form and purely by virtue of his power, his wealth, and his integrity, Mr. Morgan created an aggregation of banking power unequaled in the history of this country, though paralleled, possibly, in other lands.

No other man in our financial history has left behind him so many tangible evidences of his creative power, or so many methods closely interwoven with the business life of a great nation. His death will probably lead to no sudden readjustment or disruption of any of the institutions or public functions with which he was connected. Yet the man is dead; and his power and personality in the business world cannot be passed down to syndicates, to firms, or to corporations. Therefore, the business world will suffer a great change.

The passing away of such leaders as Mr. Harriman and Mr. Morgan marks the end of an epoch; and the next era in American business life will be an era in which syndicates and organizations will be the most powerful agencies, and they will come under public control to a degree that would be simply incomprehensible to a man like Mr. Morgan.

V

For quite a time, Mr. Morgan had been practically a retired leader. He had taken little active part in the many activities and functions of the banking house which bears his name. Nevertheless, he remained to his death the undoubted leader of American business, so far as it is expressed in and represented by the operations of banking and finance. The confidence of the whole business community in the firm and in the great banks and trust companies which he had piled up around him since the panic of 1907 was based, to a striking extent, upon the confidence of that community in the integrity, courage, and ability of Mr. Morgan himself.

The continuance of that confidence depends hereafter not upon the power and prestige of a man but upon the acts and continuous policies of a firm and of a group of banks and bankers who have hitherto been held together and made one, as it were, by the name and association of Mr. Morgan. There is little doubt that there will be in the financial community a shifting and moving about of

various men and various interests, such as followed the removal of Mr. Harriman from the railroad world. There may be, and there probably will be, personal ambitions developed within the Morgan groups which may find themselves too much hampered and restricted by the community of interest in which they dwell and which may seek new alliances or try to carve out individual destinies for themselves to the eventual disruption of their own power.

In spite of the constructive work and the masterful leadership of Mr. Morgan and of his great deeds in the era that we are now passing out of, a revision of the currency and banking laws, if a wise revision be made, will prevent any other such career, even if another such strong personality were to arise. The possession of such great power — or the possibility of its possession — does not fit into the American scheme of life or business. Mr. Morgan's strict integrity, by the financial code of his time, and the confidence that this integrity inspired brought finance a very, very long way forward and upward from the era of Jay Gould. But the concentration of credit which was in some respects a fortunate result of his integrity, under our present bad financial laws, would in itself again be improper and immoral.

Thus ends a financial dynasty and an economic epoch.

TO END FLOODS

THE public has already begun to pay millions of dollars to repair railroad bridges and tracks and telephone lines that were washed away by the recent floods. Counties and townships are at work repairing roads; cities and towns are cleaning up their débris, counting their losses, and looking over the cost of emergency relief work. Factories and stores are counting the cost of damaged plants and ruined goods, and individuals are trying to rehabilitate wrecked homes and washed-out farms; and all this has to be done in the face of a month's interruption of business. Last year it was in the lower Mississippi Valley. This year it is in the Ohio Valley. Both catastrophes are but reminders of other floods of the past and prophecies of those floods that are sure to come.

Probably the greatest task in the physical upbuilding of the Nation is the proper use of the rain and snow that falls in the Mississippi drainage basin and the safe guiding of that water to the sea.

If the Mississippi River and its tributaries, were once effectively controlled, the saving in flood damage alone would much more than pay the interest on any conceivable sum that could be spent on the controlling works, for every year the infinitely powerful streams of the Mississippi Valley run wild somewhere, usually in many places. So common is this that it is not "news" unless the catastrophe is tremendous and dramatic. Merely the negative advantage of escaping the damage from flood calls aloud for the control of the river.

But this is not the greatest of its advantages. There are vast undeveloped regions of rich lands, unborn towns, and non-existent centres of trade that would be flourishing, helpful units if it were not for the fear of the river. For men and money do not settle and build homes and industries within the probable reach of unbridled waters.

How much the Ohio, the Missouri, and the Mississippi can be economically used for transportation is an unsettled point. As they flow now, building bars of débris, cutting their banks, flooding the countryside at highwater and running low in droughts, they are less and less useful. Kept within their banks, relieved of some of their débris, and with a more even flow, they would at least have a better chance of regaining their old usefulness as common carriers.

Above the fall line of the rivers, where the possibilities of navigation usually cease, the sites for water power development are found. For this use, also, an even flow is one of the greatest assets.

The control of the great river means an incalculable increase in wealth to the Nation. The United States Engineer Corps and the river commissions have brought the lower river under partial control. By the Eads jetties and related works the passes at its mouth have been

opened to navigation. By a superb levee system flood-waters have been barred from the bottom lands. But these works, as good as they are, are not aimed at the root of the evil.

In the 19½ trillion cubic feet of water which the Mississippi yearly carries to the sea, there are 400 million tons of the country's richest soil. A river carrying silt in this manner when flowing slowly deposits the silt and forms bars, which change its channels and find new places to attack when the floods come again. Whenever a new piece of land is drained and reclaimed (as is being done in Arkansas) some other section is forced to receive the extra pressure of the river. And these intimate inter-relations go back up from the Mississippi where it empties into the Gulf to the veriest little streamlet that begins in a plowed field on the western slopes of the Appalachians or in the forests on the eastern slopes of the Rockies.

There have probably always been floods in this country, but the cutting of the forests and the careless tillage of the soil

THE DRAINAGE BASIN OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER
THE CONTROL OF WHICH MUST BE UNDERTAKEN AS A WHOLE

A silt-carrying river when flowing fast acts like a great file, scouring out its bottom and cutting its banks. The lower Mississippi is gradually building its bottom up higher and higher during the months of sluggish flow, so that the levees have to be built higher and higher to control the water at flood time. If straightened and confined enough to accelerate its flow sufficiently to keep it from building up its bottom during the low stages, it would be too powerful for any kind of control during its high stages. The vast sections that used to be overflowed took enough water to relieve the pressure elsewhere. have increased their size and frequency. Nearly all the rain that falls, as explained by Professor T. W. Chamberlain, of Chicago, should go into the soil and thence into the underdrainage, coming out slowly and steadily by seepage and by springs into the streams clear and pure. Being fed thus fairly uniformly, these streams should be the least destructive and the most adaptable for power and navigation, and these virtues would be felt all the way from their small sources to the Gulf. But where the rain falls upon denuded forest slopes, or upon farm land left in such condition that it will not absorb the rain-

fall, it does not seep in but rushes away as foul erosive floods on the surface, wasting soil and plant food, gullying the surface, flooding the valleys, silting the pools, washing away reservoirs and dams, barring the streams, and carrying its multifarious influences of destruction through the long course to the ocean.

The most obvious method of control, the building of levees, we already practise on a tremendous scale, but not on a scale commensurate with our needs, nor upon a comprehensive enough plan; the building of storage reservoirs to catch flood waters is still chiefly in the plan stage; forestry and proper tillage are still, in spite of the progress of the last few years, generally unobserved.

The proper control of this one great drainage system, beginning in the forests and on the farms, including storage reservoirs, power plants, dredging, levees, and revetments, and extending through nearly half the states of the Union — this is probably the most pressing physical problem confronting the Nation. The political difficulty is to keep the vast engineering problem out of politics, as the construction of the Panama Canal has been kept out, only it is a much harder task. Panama is not in any Congressional district.

There is no local interest to bring pressure in favor of one particular scheme or another. In the great interior basin are thousands of local interests which, if permitted to do so, would wreck any comprehensive scheme to treat the problem as a whole. The question comes also of who should pay the bills, the National Government, the states, or the smaller units of government; or, if they share the expense, in what ratio should they share it.

The problem of the Mississippi is the problem of the other drainage systems of the country, but they are, of course, on a much smaller scale. If it can be successfully solved they can be handled also.

To formulate a plan comprehensive enough to solve this great problem in its engineering, political, and financial aspects is a task worthy of any administration of economic statesmen. It is an imperative duty before the Nation, the next great task of conservation.

OUR TRADE TO THE SOUTH

FURTHER facts concerning the vast possibilities for trade that open in South America to the manufacturers and exporters of the United States appear in an analysis of "Latin American Foreign Trade in 1911" in a recent bulletin of the Pan-American Union. The total imports of the ten South American republics during 1911 were valued at $893,000,000. Nearly $130,000,000 worth of these imports came from the United States. But Great Britain supplied more than $261,000,000 worth of them, and Germany more than $165,000,000. France sent only about $78,000,000.

But when the net value of the goods sold to South America is figured, the United States probably makes the poorest showing of all. The reason is that the goods sent by this country are mostly raw materials or goods upon which the work of fabrication was so slight that their value was little increased by the skilled labor of American artisans. The goods from the other countries, however — and especially the imports from France — were generally much more highly finished products, upon which the French people made not only the profit from the sale of raw materials but a larger profit from the application of brains, mechanical skill, and organized manufacturing industry. In other words, France and Germany and Great Britain made several profits upon every dollar's worth of goods against only one profit upon the American goods.

Nevertheless, American manufacturers are making headway in South America — especially manufacturers of farm implements, of windmills, of electrical supplies, and of railroad equipment. These products have been pushed successfully because they are manufactured by corporations of such gigantic size that they can overcome the great disadvantages of imperfect banking facilities and of the general lack of American salesmen who are trained in the languages and trade customs of the South. The United States should find in South America for many years to come a sufficient outlet for the products of the new era of export trade.

ɔING OF "DOLLAR DIPLOMACY"

)ENT WILSON will have no ar diplomacy" in China nor, ntially, elsewhere. "Dollar meant the promise by the to use force, if need be, to loan that American citizens to the Chinese Government, as l European governments were , if need be, to collect loans ir citizens. On these conditions to be lent to China. The so far as we are concerned, vith the preceding Adminis-h asked American bankers to ndicate. It did not originate lkers.

erican policy, the plan would analysis. For it meant first ɔing the kind of taxes the vernment should levy, and meant the putting of our navy at the service of American they should need it, for the their debts — in a word, to lo their business safely. To se in this way is to make its obvious.

ıe policy of dollar diplomacy not so simple as this statement ppear. China needs money. ow it from the great bankers The great bankers of Europe and-hunger of their govern-: partition of China was an hat came near coming true a ago. May it not come true eat European Power is willing r European Powers to gain a antage in China to its exclu-ıe should guarantee a loan s citizens, the others would ll, then, if the Powers of Eur-ıave this hold on China, does ɔe of influence and of trade : we should be in the "deal?" usible and insidious reasoning. ant Chinese territory. As for es not follow a loan, at least reclosure. American bankers loans where they will. But ın Government, that is, the American people, cannot guarantee their collection, whatever other governments may guarantee to do.

Apply this same policy to Central America. If we guarantee American loans to those governments, we thereby guarantee also European loans to them. For we will not permit any European government to seize American territory; and, if we use force to collect debts due to our citizens, we must either permit other governments the same privilege or else collect their debts ourselves.

This incident admirably illustrates the difference between the conception of government as an ally of business and the conception of it as an agency of order and justice, "of the people, by the people, and for the people." The conception of it as an ally of business — that is, of one class of men — has had expression and exemplification in many ways for a long time — in so many ways and for so long a time that it has become warp and woof of the thought of a large part of the American people. It is a fundamentally erroneous view of a republican government, apply it how you will, whether by protective tariffs or by river-and-harbor bills or by any form of special legislation.

President Wilson is to be congratulated on having had presented to him so soon an opportunity to apply his conception of our Government's proper functions.

A GOOD RIDDANCE

THE little postmasters, as other little public servants, cause much more trouble than they are worth. Mr. Taft put the whole army of the fourth-class in the classified service — a suspicious action, as the spoilsmen regarded it, because this fixed Republicans in office. But the Democratic Administration has met this situation very wisely. Let so many of them, it says, as can stand a fair civil service test remain; but let all be put to the test. That's fair. Several thousands of them have resigned because their offices were not worth the trouble of standing an examination. These have run at the first mention of merit, and their places are made vacant without scandal.

The President, the Postmaster-General, and members of Congress have more important duties than appointments to these small jobs; and it is a long step toward common sense to keep them under the civil service rules. Incidentally, they cannot again pack political conventions of either party.

II

There's something so fascinating about an office that men lose their common sense in seeking it and their official friends lose honesty in aiding them. This story is told at Washington and is typical: Two Senators and an important Representative in Congress called on a Cabinet officer and made most earnest pleas for the appointment of a man to an office that no one of first-rate ability could afford to accept. The Secretary listened patiently to their several orations in praise of the applicant. Then, when silence came, he remarked:

"Of course, you gentlemen know that this office is in the classified service and no appointment can be made except under the civil service rules."

One of the honorable callers asked the company out to have drinks; and, as they were leaving the room, one with a sly smile put his head again in the door and said:

"Well, Mr. Secretary, you'll bear witness that I've done my duty by him."

We pay Senators and Representatives rather meagrely; but the most niggardly salary is a shameful waste of money to men who waste time and character in this way. For at the bottom of this whole advance on the Secretary, there was an essential lie. They knew that the fellow was unworthy of the office, and they knew he couldn't get it, and they didn't wish him to have it. But they lacked the courage of common decency to tell him the plain truth about the case.

AN IDIOTIC ECONOMIC SITUATION

MR H. G. HASTINGS, of Atlanta, Ga., has published the following somewhat startling statement of the production of the money-crop in Georgia last year and of the farm products that were imported into Georgia from other states:

GROWN IN GEORGIA AND SOLD	
1,800,000 bales cotton at $60	$108,000,000
900,000 tons cotton seed at $30	27,000,000
	$135,000,000

GROWN ELSEWHERE AND SOLD IN GEORGIA	
Corn purchased in 1912	$ 58,930,000
Hay purchased in 1912	23,680,000
Oats purchased in 1912	39,336,000
Miscellaneous feeds	2,550,000
Meat, dairy and poultry products	48,000,000
	$172,496,000

These items of food for man and beast cost $37,496,000 more than the cotton brought. The point is that practically every bushel of this corn and oats and every pound of hay and all this meat and poultry and dairy products could have been produced in Georgia at a profit, in addition to the cotton. In fact, the cotton would have been the better for it.

Why wasn't it done? This buying of corn and the rest, on its face, seems so idiotic, that there must be an explanation. The explanation is this:

The market for cotton is thoroughly organized. A farmer can take a bale of cotton to any town or village and get cash for it on any working day of the year. The market for corn and hay and butter and meat is organized (so to speak) against the Georgia consumer. These products have been imported by jobbing houses for many years, and they have the distributing machinery. A Georgian knows where he can buy hay and corn and meat, but he doesn't know where he could sell them if he should raise them. That is why he has grown only cotton.

Of course, thorough-going business men would have no difficulty in dealing with such a situation. But the scattered and usually unorganized farmers are not thorough-going business men. Here are need and chance for coöperative marketing. Suppose, for instance, in a given neighborhood, every farmer belonged to a coöperative society which employed a secretary, whose business it should be to keep a record of what every member had to sell

eded to buy. He would find a r near-by market for all the hay rn and oats and meat that every ould produce. Then, of course, a in crops would follow.

silliness of this situation — well, orld wherein everything has been y organization for a generation or ose regions and industries which ot organized are precisely where ere in the old times of primitive rcial life. But the way out of this economic situation is, let us hope, nt throughout the country.

CE OF A NEW PORK BARREL

HE National Highways Association, believing in the building and permanent maintenance of 50,000 f highways by the Federal Governlately sent to the press a circular nd five elaborate pamphlets, maps, s, etc., in support of its propaganda. of the pamphlets is devoted to f the economic advantage of good a proposition now generally ad- and jumps from that to the ion that because they are economieneficial it is in the province of the al Treasury to pay for them.

illogical deduction is reached standing the very examples of oads which were used to prove conomic advantages are state and built roads.

obvious logical deduction is, if these d county roads are so beneficial, to nore state and county roads. Bed roads can be had all over the in this manner, the people all e country will have to come to in roads earnestly enough to pay m. When good roads do come in anner they will serve their most urpose.

this solid, substantial way of doing from the bottom up is too slow for ional aid propagandists, with their -quick kind of road building schemes good, long distance touring roads mobiles through states and counties are not themselves ready to build aintain them. The proposed national highways are not primarily designed for the farmer or the city delivery people or for any such commercial uses.

More real business would be done on roads built in radiating spokes leading to every nook and corner of the surrounding county from the cities than will be done on thousand-mile highways from one part of the country to another. The proposers of the multifarious Federal aid schemes (there were seventy bills on this subject before the last Congress) come to the Federal Treasury because they feel that a Government that wastes money on river and harbor improvements and public buildings can be induced to waste money on public roads, particularly if the roads are planned to traverse Congressional districts represented by men whose support for a measure can be forced by the price of a piece of "pork". But such districts are, happily, fewer than they used to be, and if the public once gets an insight into the true inwardness of the colossal scheme of Federal appropriations which this national aid to roads involves, there will be no political glory to be had by championing it.

We should and must have the good roads, but we ought not to have them until each community wants them earnestly enought to pay for them. We should not have them given to us willy-nilly from the bountiful hand of a wasteful Government at the behest of an automobile and road-machinery propaganda. The real good roads movement springing from the needs and desires of the people throughout the country will be retarded and blocked if this new pork-barrel scheme spreads its corrupting influence through the land.

THE CITIES AND THE FARM MOVEMENT

THE INTERSTATE Agricultural and Industrial Congress, which met at St. Joseph, Mo., for three days in the second week of March, well illustrates the new spirit in agriculture that is engaging the best thought of the Nation, both of city dwellers and country folk. Several thousand farmers from Nebraska, Iowa, Kansas, and Missouri joined the citizens of St. Joseph, at the invitation of the

Commerce Club, to hear addresses by distinguished speakers from all parts of the United States and to discuss the improvement of farm management, of farm living, and of the relations between town and country.

Both the invitation and the congress were typical of the new movement. St. Joseph is one of the oldest settlements of the Middle West, and it has lived for the last forty years in the memory, and in accordance with the traditions, of its first prosperity as a trading and outfitting post for the gold seekers of '49. The other day its citizens awoke to realize that St. Joseph was at the centre where the border lines of four of the richest agricultural states converge and that it was losing its opportunity to become a great agricultural market by clinging to its vanishing commercial glory. Upon that realization the Commerce Club engaged a farm adviser under a three-year contract to help develop the resources of its farming neighborhood. Then the club, under the inspiration of Col. R. M. Bacheller, announced the agricultural congress.

Such men as President W. C. Brown, of the New York Central Railroad, President H. J. Waters, of the State Agricultural College of Kansas, Dr. L. L. Lumsden, of the United States Public Health Service, and other distinguished men, came to speak on the best methods to extend farm credit, on coöperative marketing, on sanitation on the farm, on diversification of crops, on soil renewal, and on other subjects that are vital to the regeneration of country living.

One of the first results of the congress was that one thousand farmers pledged a dollar apiece for prizes for the best corn at a corn show which they arranged to hold next year. The farmers who were present also proposed another meeting of the congress, which they will help to manage, and which will be held probably next December or January.

Here, again, as at Duluth and at other cities, the town and the country have united to further that agricultural advance which is one of the most inspiring and most hopeful movements in the upward march of American life.

SCHOOLS THAT DISCOVERED A CITY

SEVERAL years ago Mr. J. W. Sewell, supervisor of the grammar schools of Nashville, Tenn., led his schools to discover the city in which they were and the city in turn to discover its schools. The children are taught their daily tasks in the terms of the life around them.

In the English course, for example, at least one careful exercise must be written during every term on some such subject as: "Points of Historic Interest Around Nashville;" "What Nashville Manufactures;" "The Value of the Cumberland River to Nashville;" "How Our City is Governed;" "Our City Schools." By the time the pupil has passed through the ten terms of the grammar school grades, his ten exercises have driven into him the fact that he lives somewhere, that his city has a reason for being, and some relation to the rest of the world; and in doing this the child's mental training has not been neglected.

In geography and history, the boys and girls are required to touch over and over again upon Nashville's trade and industries, as well as the lives of Tennessee's eminent men. For example, in the sixth grade the students learn about the lumber, textile, and other industries of Nashville, something about river and railroad transportation, the territory covered by the domestic and foreign trade, etc.

Besides classroom work, the pupils, under the care of their teachers, have been sent out in groups to study the work of factories, foundries, warehouses, coffee roasting plants, mills, etc., as well as municipal institutions. After returning to school they spent one or two periods on another day in comparing notes, discussing the industry, and clearing up more or less indistinct impressions. Later every child wrote his own account of the visit, and one or two of the best papers were sent to the factories that entertained them.

Furthermore, in the study of current topics, which is required in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, all questions relating to the progress and welfare of the

eadily seized upon by the pupils. keen to discern matters of more ing interest; and, in the light of training, even these twelve- or year old children are able to uch topics with profit and with pleasure.

kindness of the city merchants, ls obtained invoices, freight bills, of sale, and other like papers of these, in part, take the place of -honored books of arithmetic. is made as interesting as possible ldren; for they are doing problems e, and the names in the problems ames of firms and businesses that r and see every day.

ublic school children of Nashville g their minds trained to work by real life, and the people of Nash- not help taking a keen and active in schools which take such an in them. The schools are a part e of the city, not, as is often the public schools, institutions apart life of the city.

OTION PICTURE INDUSTRY

RE than twenty thousand mo- tion picture theatres in the United States take every day the nickels s of probably five million patrons. t estimate is that approximately ion dollars are invested in the and that it utilizes the labor of five hundred thousand people or indirectly.

are the sums invested in a few of and basic industries of the United s shown by the last census: copper, sheet iron products, 217 millions; , 227 millions; petroleum refining, ions; anthracite coal mining, 246

The motion picture industry ranks with these. Perhaps an ore striking comparison is with ting and publishing business, which f the oldest and most widely dis- of all industries. Motion pictures nore than a third as much capital d by that great business.

ns no industry except the manu- utomobiles has recently shown such astonishing gro th as this. Its first commercial exhibition of motion pictures was made only seventeen years ago. But even more noteworthy than their financial importance is the educational influence of the pictures. They reveal new possibilities to teachers of history and science, and they put a new weapon in the hands of social reformers and sanitary engineers. Elsewhere in this magazine the educational service of the pictures is described at length. Both commercially and educationally they are a remarkable and most useful addition to the resources of modern civilization.

ABOUT JOY IN ONE'S WORK

AN INCIDENTAL word was recently published in these pages about the enjoyment of life while a man's work goes on. Should a man look upon his bread-earning as an unwelcome task, to be hurried and done with confusion and at the risk of his health, with the hope of reaching an early period of retirement when he may do what he will and "really enjoy life?" This has provoked inquiries and experiences.

In the first place, the subject lacks a wide interest, for few men can consider it at all. Those who can ever voluntarily retire before they must do not make a large part of the working community, although they might wisely make a larger part than they now do. But suppose a man can hope to retire at an early period and live thereafter without gainful work, is he justified in regarding whatever respectable occupation he has as a bore or as merely a method of earning enough money to retire on? And, if he so regards it, is he likely to enjoy his retirement?

He will make a very doubtful experiment. Whatever a man do during his active period, he ought to do with such orderliness and thoroughness as to get from his daily and monthly and yearly labor the pleasure that comes from [illegible] his task well and the addit[illegible] of so doing it that he pe[illegible]. To do anything w[illegible] brings is not to those men [illegible]

working wholly for money are likely thereby to unfit themselves for the enjoyment of a period of retirement. For the right-minded man makes agreeable companionships in his daily work, he finds problems that call for all his brain and character — for endurance, for fair judgment, for just dealing, for doing as he would be done by; and all these are the very warp and woof of successful living. If he so "rush things" that he sacrifices these enjoyments and this discipline and this human relationship, he will discover that in his period of ease the lack of this very experience will make life seem barren. Few men are better, or are likely to become better, than they show themselves in their daily work.

The kind of man to retire from money-earning labor with the hope of really enjoying life is the man who has really enjoyed life during his period of hardest work. And you will deceive yourself if you imagine that in idleness you will develop virtues or a capacity for sensible enjoyment that you did not have during your working years.

"I have a library of books that I have collected which I wish to read with continuity of attention"— so writes one gentleman; "and I've been 'rushing things' to get money enough to give years to this enjoyment before I die." If he cannot find time to read before he reaches later middle life, is there any reason to hope that he would read after that period, if leisure should come to him? It would be wise to "rush things" a little less, to get what joy he can from his present work and at least to begin his reading now. Few of us change after we have passed fifty.

A CANAL HALF AS BIG AS PANAMA

THE state of New York is building — and has more than half finished — the Barge Canal that will require half as much excavation (though in a less concentrated area) as the Panama Canal, and that will cost one third as much.

The Barge Canal will lift the old Erie Canal from a tow-path route for little boats to a small river, nowhere less than 75 feet wide and 12 feet deep, connecting both Lake Erie and Lake Ontario with the Hudson River to New York. Boats of 3,000 tons, capacity will be able to ply between Buffalo or Oswego and New York, transshipping goods from Duluth and Chicago and Detroit and Toronto.

The total length of the canal will be 434 miles. More than 130 million cubic yards of excavation will be dug (Panama, 242 millions), and the total cost will be 108 million dollars (Panama, 375 millions). Fifty million dollars' worth of the work is now done, and the canal will probably be opened in 1915. And one state is paying the bill.

The hotly controverted questions, whether it will ever be sufficiently used to justify its cost, whether railroad development has made canal traffic obsolete, and whether in any event the mere existence of such a canal will operate to keep freight rates reasonable and thus justify itself, time alone can answer. At least it is a monumental undertaking.

THE SEA-LEVEL OF FINANCE

THE danger of a European war is passed — there is a new danger of a European war. So the changing game goes on; and, while nobody regards a general conflict as imminent, almost every man who knows European politics fears that it will come. This expectation already very seriously affects the finances of the world. American securities that were held in Germany in particular have been coming home in sufficient quantities very seriously to lower their price. The governments of Europe, especially the German, have been having trouble in marketing their own securities.

All this means that the financial world is perfectly aware of the necessity, as Germany looks at it, of German expansion; and, by some unhappy event, which no one can forsee, this may lead to a conflict. Finance, of course, has its sea-level. Whatever disturbs the markets or the credit or arouses the fears of any people has its immediate effect in the market places of all other nations. A slowly subscribed loan of the German Government affects the

prices of American railroad securities. It affects the chances of China's borrowing money. It affects, more or less, the domestic markets of every country in the world that has a considerable foreign trade.

A FEW ANNOUNCEMENTS

FOLLOWING Mr. Hale's article on "Watching President Wilson at Work" will come others by him on "Who Governs the United States," — a graphic picture of the men who make Washington what it is, and an intimate picture of the machine that governs us. There is no more interesting study than a study of the way Congress really works. It is more interesting now than ever because of the new players in the game.

In early numbers of the WORLD'S WORK Miss Sarah Comstock will write true portraits of women of real achievement — not stories of women whose achievements are notable only because they are the deeds of women, but because of their inherent and fundamental significance.

Mr. C. M. Keys, who writes in the next number "Canada's Cure for Strikes," was a classmate of Mr. Mackenzie King, the author of the Canadian Arbitration Act, when he first achieved prominence, curiously enough, by leading a student strike.

SMALL INVESTORS' MONEY FOR HOME BUILDING

EVERY year, as the building season comes around, the WORLD'S WORK hears from people all over the country who are trying to save money to invest in homes of their own.

"But it will take such a long time to accumulate enough in the regular way," complain most of these folks. "Isn't there some way to build and pay back?"

A question like that was asked three or four years ago by a man who recently wrote again to this magazine about another kind of investment, and incidentally told how he had followed the advice that had been given on the former occasion, and how pleased he was with the outcome.

It is timely to refer to his case, because it is typical. He was a salaried worker, living in a small town in New Jersey. He explained that he had managed to save enough out of his monthly earnings to pay on the instalment plan for a good building lot. But, even with a start as good as that, he had begun to despair of realizing his ambition, until he heard of a certain building and loan association in a neighboring town, and learned how it had for years been assisting people just like himself to earn their homes for good and all. In due course he "took out" ten shares of that association's stock; and a little more than a year ago he moved into a fine new house, built with the aid of $2,000 that the association had lent him.

Without going into the mathematics of this investor's experience, a few of its phases may be explained briefly, to show how such associations work. Every share of this particular association's stock represented an ultimate value of two hundred dollars, and called for monthly payments of one dollar in dues, to be continued regularly by the holder, or subscriber, until the total of the sums paid in, increased by the pro rata distribution of the association's profits, amounted to the fixed value of the stock.

Ten shares, then, gave the holder an ultimate claim against the association amounting to two thousand dollars. Against this he had the right to borrow, upon presentation of satisfactory real estate security. The procedure was for him to apply for his loan in accordance with certain rules laid down in the association's by-laws, to be awarded his money by entering into an agreement to pay a "premium" of one dollar a month, or ten cents a share, besides his dues, with an interest charge of 6 per cent. a year. He

was then ready to sign the contract with his builders.

Meanwhile, it was necessary for him to pledge to the association the shares which represented his future savings and, in addition, to give a first mortgage on his property. Upon becoming a borrowing member he had to pay into the treasury, in addition to the regular dues on the shares, the premium and the interest on the loan, all amounting to twenty-one dollars a month. In from ten to twelve years after the first payment at this rate he will have paid off the mortgage, principal and interest.

This illustration is of the working of one of the many plans used by the true, or "local," building and loan associations — the kind that stand for savings and for homes through coöperation. Of these there are more than six thousand in the United States. Most of that number are strictly mutual: that is, they extend only to members the right of management and the privileges of borrowing money and sharing profits. They are called "local," "neighborhood," or "homestead" associations, or sometimes, as in Massachusetts, "coöperative banks," because they lend money only on property whose value can be determined easily through personal inspection by their own competent officers, and, obviously, only to people whose responsibility is known, in a general way at least, to all whose interests are at stake.

Such associations have to be distinguished sharply from the so-called "national" associations, and other types of loan companies, organized, not like the locals, as semi-philanthropic institutions, but as ordinary business corporations, conducted solely for the personal profit of small groups of stockholders and officers, lending money on "risks" in remote places, and not infrequently managed as purely speculative enterprises.

The pity is that the local building and loan association idea is not wider, geographically. The six thousand in the whole United States have nearly two and a half million members, who own coöperatively more than a billion dollars of assets. Yet one half of their total membership is in four states — Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and New Jersey. There is room, even in the states where they are now most numerous, for more institutions of the kind. An extension of their usefulness was recently urged officially by Mr. George C. Van Tuyl, Superintendent of Banks of New York state, in which are 229 local associations with a membership of 140,000. In his report to the legislature on the 15th of March, the Superintendent said:

"There is probably no considerable village in the state in which a properly conducted savings and loan association could not be organized to advantage, and it is quite possible that their development in the rural districts of the state would satisfy existing demands for coöperative lending institutions. They certainly encourage thrift and home-owning, and enable the honest and the frugal to obtain loans whenever adequate security can be furnished, either by the individual borrower, himself, or through the coöperation of other members."

But the usefulness of these societies is not all on the side of the borrower. Indeed, if they did not afford to the man who can save only by fives and tens a safe means of investing for income, they would fail in their purpose of promoting the ownership of homes. Reports of the associations of two typical states show that for every borrowing member last year there were four who were merely investors.

In scarcely any other way can an investor of limited financial experience keep his savings so closely under his own eye. Jones may not want to build, but he does not hesitate to entrust his monthly surplus to his local society, because he knows it will be wisely employed in making up a loan to some fellow citizen whose house, which he may watch grow from its foundations, will be mortgaged to protect him; and because he believes his neighbors, Smith, Brown, and all the rest, will keep up their payments of dues, premium, and interest to the last extremity to protect their properties from foreclosure.

Perhaps Jones may have studied the reports of Mr. C. S. Cellarius, Secretary of the National League of Local Building

and Loan Associations, which show that these are among the most economically managed financial institutions in the world and that, even in localities where the lending rates are comparatively low, they have, as a rule, no difficulty in declaring dividends of at least 5 per cent. He probably knows that, if he wishes to withdraw his savings before his shares have obtained their full value, he may do so by giving reasonable notice and by agreeing, perhaps, to accept a slightly smaller division of profits than he would otherwise be entitled to.

It should not be imagined, however, that the building and loan society can assure investors of "absolute safety." There have been not only mistakes, but abuses, of management, serving to bring home to investing members the stern fact that they are not depositors entitled to interest, as they sometimes erroneously believe, but stockholders, every one entitled to his proportion of the profits, but also liable for his proportion of the losses.

But, after all, the record of these local societies is remarkably clean. Next to the carefully regulated savings banks, probably no other kind of institution is more fit to cater to the needs of the small investor. It would be a wholesome thing to see them commanding a larger part of the small savings of the Nation, to the exclusion of some of the more modern instalment investment schemes of doubtful suitability for the financial novice.

THE NEW CHIEF OF THE SECRET SERVICE

MR. WILLIAM J. FLYNN AND HIS ADVENTURES TO ENFORCE THE LAW AGAINST COUNTERFEITING — HIS SEVEN-YEAR CHASE TO CAPTURE LUPO AND MORELLO, TWO LEADERS OF THE AMERICAN "BLACK HAND"

BY

FRANK MARSHALL WHITE

STANDING just inside the door of one of the Federal Court rooms in the New York Post Office building one afternoon in the summer of 1903, Mr. William J. Flynn, now head of the United States Secret Service, and an Assistant United States District Attorney watched two of the worst Italian criminals stroll jauntily to liberty. One of the criminals was small and dapper, the other powerfully built and of medium height, his right arm crippled and the hand thrust into the edge of his coat.

"These pigs of the American police are not of the calibre to deal with you and me," remarked the Italian with the maimed arm in an undertone that reached Mr. Flynn, as it was intended to do.

"A new broom sweeps clean — nit," observed his companion.

Mr. Flynn had just been made chief of the Eastern division of the Service.

"This new broom will sweep you both into a long term prison before it's worn out," said the big man — to himself.

The dapper little Italian was Vincenzo Lupo; the man with the crippled arm Giuseppe Morello, both ex-convicts from Sicily. Mr. Flynn's first important task as head of the division had been to arrest Morello and Lupo, with several of their gang, for counterfeiting. But the two principal rogues had been mere spectators at the trial and conviction of their subordinates, for the Secret Service agents had been unable to connect them with the counterfeiting enterprise. Hence Morello's complacent reflection that the American "police pigs" were not competent to cope with him and Lupo.

Morello and Lupo are now serving 25-

and 30-year terms respectively in the Federal prison at Atlanta, Ga. Mr. Flynn put them there, and that is one of the reasons why he is the Chief of the Secret Service now.

To understand the situation it should be borne in mind that the Italian crime problem in New York and the rest of the United States came into existence with the great wave of Italian immigration, beginning approximately with the first year of the century, that has since brought into the country thousands of ex-convicts of the Mafia and the Camorra among more than 2,000,000 of their honest and industrious compatriots. Morello and Lupo were established here before this influx began, and were proficient in what are now known as Black Hand crimes before that term began to be applied to these offenses. Morello, indeed, had been known to the New York police for several years before he went into partnership with Lupo. The maimed Sicilian had been arrested for murder, kidnapping, extortion, and blackmail at least half a score of times before his transactions in counterfeit money brought him within the view of the Federal Secret Service, but, though morally certain of his guilt in every instance, the police had never been able to fasten a crime upon him.

Morello was a fugitive from justice from Italy under a ten-year sentence for forgery. He was about forty years of age when he came to this country, rough in appearance and uncouth in manner, but an intelligent and forceful rogue. The police have never found out how his right arm had been crippled. Incapacitated for manual participation in crime, his brain conceived the schemes that his lieutenants brought to fruition. Lupo, about ten years younger, complemented Morello. He was urbane and affable, a polished villain who wore rings on both hands, used pomade on his hair, and gave off the odors of an East Side perfumery shop. He was clever enough to establish a wholesale grocery in New York and fail fraudulently for $100,000 incidentally to his transactions with Morello.

In 1899, Morello's existence was officially brought to the attention of the Secret Service of which Mr. Flynn was then a subordinate member. During the latter part of the year a flood of counterfeit money was put into circulation among the humble shop-keepers of the poorer parts of the city, many of them recently arrived Italians who were unfamiliar with our currency. The men who passed these counterfeits were all Italians, who generally plied their trade about dusk, making small purchases in shops that were unlighted for economical reasons, tendering spurious two-dollar treasury notes in payment, and receiving change in good money.

Mr. Flynn, with some of his co-workers in the Secret Service, was put on the case. The trail led to what is known to the police as "Little Sicily," and into the home of Morello, and he and several of the men who had been passing the spurious bills were taken into custody. As on all the other occasions that Morello had been arrested with members of his gang, they suffered and he escaped. No pressure that the prosecuting officers could put upon the underlings would induce them to incriminate him, even though immunity from punishment was offered those of them who would turn State's evidence. There was nothing left to do, therefore, but to set Morello at liberty again.

Three years later, when Mr. Flynn had been made chief of the Eastern division of the Service, a deluge of counterfeit five-dollar bills swamped the Italian settlements of New York City. They were known as the "Morristown fives," because they were imitations of an issue of the National Iron Bank of Morristown, N. J. Mr. Flynn, who took charge of an investigation, traced them back, the trail leading into Little Sicily again. Pursuing his researches under cover, in an effort to find the counterfeiting plant, he discovered that Giuseppe De Primo, a grocer in Little Sicily and a friend of Morello and Lupo — who had just begun criminal operations together — was importing a larger amount of olive oil than his business seemed to call for. The clue now led to the Custom House. Under the tariff law olive oil may come into the United States by barrel at a lesser rate than in cans; it is

therefore imported in bulk, the cans being brought in from Italy empty to be filled for sale in this country.

Investigation of the cans consigned to De Primo revealed rolls of the "Morristown fives." The counterfeiting plant was in Naples, and Morello and Lupo were circulating the product that was sent to America through De Primo. Morello, Lupo, and De Primo, with a dozen other Italians who had actually passed the counterfeit money, were arrested and again there was no evidence to be found against Morello—or Lupo, either. De Primo was found guilty of taking part in the conspiracy to defraud, but he refused to implicate Morello or Lupo, even to save himself. The others were equally loyal. Morello and his partner in crime went free and the others went to prison.

The escape of Morello and Lupo from punishment in the "Morristown fives" case was the occasion for the sarcasm of the two criminals that was leveled at Mr. Flynn at the courtroom door, and for the fixing of the detective's determination never to relax his energies in their pursuit until he had landed them behind prison bars. From that time until their final arrest in January, 1910, they were continually under the surveillance of Secret Service agents, except for brief periods during which their whereabouts were generally known.

Nevertheless, for month after month and year after year, Black Hand crimes — as they were beginning to be called — small and great, were traced *almost* to Morello and Lupo. Their operations extended as far west as Chicago and as far south as New Orleans; but, although scores of their associates and dupes were convicted and sentenced to long terms in prison and even to the electric chair, the "men higher up" could not be reached. Neither Morello nor Lupo knew that Mr. Flynn was keeping track of their movements during the long period that they let counterfeit money alone, and for years they directed criminal operations under the eyes of the local and Federal police agents. To be sure, they were arrested frequently; but, believing themselves to be secure from conviction, they took such trifling disturbances philosophically. as part of the day's work.

"What is a journey more or less to the courts?" Morello once said to a member of the Italian squad of the detective bureau who had him in custody. "It is a relief from monotony. It might even be amusing if the American pigs of lawyers and judges had a little wit to put me on my mettle. But, no! I sleep while they dispose of my case."

For more than five years, in addition to other important work of the Secret Service, watch was kept on Morello and Lupo before Mr. Flynn found it practicable to begin the construction of the trap into which they finally fell. Mr. Flynn was confident that it was merely a question of time before the bandits and their followers would again turn their attention to counterfeiting.

Meanwhile Mr. Flynn's reputation as a detective was constantly increasing. In January of the year before the issue of the "Morristown fives," he had been called to a bank in Grand Street in New York, the cashier of which had telephoned him that he was holding a suspicious looking man who had offered eighty five-pound Bank of England notes for exchange. Mr. Flynn had approached the bank slowly and cautiously, with the idea that if the man with the English money was a professional criminal he would doubtless have a confederate waiting outside to ascertain whether fortune or misfortune befell him. The detective's forethought had been rewarded by the sight of a little man with a red beard on the opposite side of the street gazing fixedly at the door of the bank. The sentinel had disappeared on seeing Mr. Flynn looking in his direction, and the detective had arrested the man in the bank who had asked for exchange for the eighty notes, and who had declared that he had found them in a wallet in the street. Mr. Flynn had been unable to find the red-bearded little man, but he had made a mental photograph of him. The five-pound notes were as perfect counterfeits as the officers of the Bank of England had ever seen, the celebrated watermark having been copied almost exactly.

In the fall of the same year, when John

Davis was tried in London for forging Bank of England notes, Mr. Flynn went to England and was able to identify him as the red-bearded man whom he had seen watching the bank in Grand Street in New York the day the five-pound counterfeits had been offered for exchange. Davis had collapsed entirely on hearing Mr. Flynn's testimony, had confessed his guilt, and had been allowed to turn State's evidence, while the other members of the most troublesome gang of counterfeiters that had ever menaced the Bank of England had been sentenced to long terms in prison.

Mr. Flynn had kept Davis in mind. He had ascertained who were his associates in this country, and he kept an eye on them, anticipating that Davis would be unable permanently to wean himself from the profitable occupation of counterfeiting. As Davis was well known to the English police, Mr. Flynn guessed that he would be as likely as not to set up his next plant in the United States. In the fall of 1903, counterfeit ten-dollar bills were discovered to be in circulation in Massachusetts, and simultaneously Mr. Flynn's agents reported that Davis was in the country. Through his former associates Davis was traced to Revere, a suburb of Boston. A comfortable cottage sheltered a small but well-equipped counterfeiting plant. Evidence was gathered against every suspicious acquaintance of Davis, and in December the place was raided. As the back door was broken down a little man with a red beard rushed into the kitchen and right up against the muzzle of Mr. Flynn's revolver.

"Why, John Davis," said Mr. Flynn, with a laugh, "you ought to be ashamed of yourself."

The little man began to whimper, and told Mr. Flynn all his history since his trial in London the previous year. Scotland Yard had sent him to Australia, with a warning not to return to England. The lure of counterfeiting had drawn him to America, as Mr. Flynn had foreseen. His plant in Revere was ready to turn out a million dollars in counterfeit tens when it was raided.

One counterfeit mystery that Mr. Flynn cleared up, after many Secret Service men had tried in vain, was that surrounding a continuous run of counterfeit pennies that had been circulating in New York City for years. The making of pennies is a profitable occupation in a small way. A 13-cent sheet of copper will produce 130 cents. Mr. Flynn began investigating this case the year he was made chief of the eastern division of the Service. He first obtained an assay of the copper in the cent, and then he searched the country from coast to coast until he found a dealer in Connecticut who sold that very quality of the metal. He examined the books of this dealer, who had 416 customers in different parts of the country. With the help of his agents, Mr. Flynn canvassed the customers, and finally found one in Centre Street, New York, who sold sheet copper to a Hebrew peddler. Mr. Flynn trailed the peddler with a load of copper on his pushcart to a room in Allen Street, and breaking in a little later he found him industriously stamping out new and shiny one-cent pieces. Further investigation, lasting more than a year, revealed another one-cent plant in the mountains of Pennsylvania, and still another in Pittsburg.

In the spring of 1906, while still awaiting the chance to catch Lupo and Morello, Mr. Flynn learned that an order had come from Portland, Ore., to a New York machine shop for what is known in the trade as a "corrugated collar," a tool that is used to mill the edges of coins, as well as for other purposes. It seemed rather a long distance to send for an article that might have been bought in Portland, and Mr. Flynn deemed it worth while to send a man out there with it. His agent followed the person who claimed the "collar" at the express office in Portland to a railroad station, and went with him about a hundred miles by train into the interior, where a buckboard met him to take him to a ranch twenty miles from the railroad. A week later a group of Secret Service men visited the ranch and found a counterfeiting plant that was turning out five-, ten-, and twenty-dollar gold pieces, with the result that Edward R. Cool and three other professional counterfeiters went to prison for long terms.

These and other cases had given Mr. Flynn added experience and reputation, but the two Italians still remained at large. It was not until the summer of 1908 that there were indications of a revival of interest in spurious money in Little Sicily. The Secret Service "shadows" now reported to Mr. Flynn that Morello and Lupo had been called upon one evening by three Italians named Cina, Silvestro, and Palermo, who had been concerned in the distribution of the "Morristown fives," had been convicted therefor, and had served their sentences. The next day Mr. Flynn's men told him that Silvestro and Palermo had brought a fourth ex-convict, named Callacchio, to the bandit chief. Callacchio was an engraver by trade. The gang was going to take up counterfeiting again, as the presence of an engraver would seem to indicate, and the bogus money was to be made in America, not in Italy.

And now Mr. Flynn began the construction of his biggest man-trap. A counterfeiting plant is not complete without a printing press, which requires a printer. It was only a day or two after the conference of these members of the old "Morristown fives" gang that, by a strange coincidence, Cina was appealed to in the street for assistance by a young Italian. He told Cina that he was a Calabrian in need of work; by name Antonio Comito; by trade a printer. To Cina's gratification, on questioning Comito, he found that he knew all about color printing, the texture of paper, and the working of hand presses. (Whether or not Mr. Flynn had anything to do with bringing about this strange coincidence no one but himself and Comito knows.)

In September, Cina purchased a small farm about three miles from Highland, N. Y., a village on the Hudson, opposite Poughkeepsie, the farmhouse being half a mile from the nearest neighbor. The young Calabrian, Comito, who was now boss printer, accompanied Cina and Callacchio when they purchased a printing press that was set up in the farmhouse, and with them he made many trips back and forth between Highland and New York — traveling by way of Poughkeepsie and crossing the bridge over the Hudson — for the purchase of dies, inks, paper, and other materials that were shipped to the farm. On every one of these visits to the city a Secret Service agent at the Poughkeepsie railroad station made a note of their going and coming, and another agent followed them from the Grand Central Station in New York and jotted down memoranda of the shops and warehouses where purchases were made.

It was not until midwinter that the counterfeiting plant was set up and in running order, and then a man named Antonio Cecela brought from New York plates made by Callacchio for the printing of five-, two-, and one-dollar bills. Before the plant was abandoned Comito had run off his press $46,000 in bogus money, $3,000 of it in fives and the rest in ones and twos. Cina, Palermo, Cecela, and a man named Giglia were constantly at the farmhouse. They took away the spurious notes for circulation, invariably visiting Morello and Lupo when they came to New York. The ruffians at the plant in Highland, all Sicilians, took an instinctive dislike to Comito, the Calabrian. He was virtually a prisoner, not being allowed to leave the house by himself, and probably he would have been killed when the counterfeiters had no further use for him if he had not escaped at the last moment. He had no opportunity of communicating with the outside world during the winter and spring, and a boy named Bernandino, a relative of Cina, was employed especially to watch him.

Cina himself, as having discovered Comito, was more malevolent than the others. "Dog, you have brought the evil eye upon the house," he would shout at him when anything went wrong. "I will have your head under my feet!"

Meanwhile, Mr. Flynn was waiting for Morello and Lupo to visit the farm at Highland, that there might be no mistake about their connection with the counterfeiting plant. However, Lupo did not visit the workers at Highland until the latter part of February. To have taken him into custody then would have necessitated the arrest of the others, and Morello — whom most of all Mr. Flynn was anxious

to "put away" — had not yet sufficiently implicated himself. When Morello finally did go to Highland, early in March, Lupo was on his way to Italy with a consignment of the counterfeits that he intended to put into circulation there.

It now became necessary to wait for Lupo to return from Italy, if Mr. Flynn's purpose of "bagging" both the leaders of the counterfeiting gang was to be carried out. If he had arrested Morello and the others, Lupo would probably not have come back at all, and so Mr. Flynn decided to wait for him.

During the winter and spring certain Secret Service agents, who did not know that the plant where the counterfeits were being made was under surveillance by other Secret Service men, were arresting the passers of the spurious money in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and even Buffalo and Cincinnati, and more than twenty of them were convicted. The risk of distribution reduced the price of counterfeits below a margin of profit, and in the latter part of May it was decided to shut down the plant at Highland. Comito escaped the night before this was done, and his associates in the farmhouse did not see him again until they met in the Federal Court.

It was a long wait for Lupo, but Mr. Flynn believed that it was worth while to hold out for his return before arresting Morello and the others, who meantime were kept under the closest scrutiny. Not until January of the next year, 1910, was Lupo discovered by the Secret Service agents to be in New York. He had probably returned by way of Canada or Mexico, for all seaports of the United States had been watched for him. On January 9th, Mr. Flynn triumphantly sprung his trap, which contained Morello, Lupo, Callacchio, Silvestro, Cina, Giglio, Palermo, and Cecela, with eight subordinates who had been concerned only with the passing of the counterfeit money.

In February the eight principals were tried together before Judge Ray and a jury in the Federal District Court. Entirely unaware of the extent of the evidence in the possession of the Secret Service, none of them felt any great concern when the trial began, even after they learned that Comito was to appear as a witness against them. They were defended by able lawyers, to whom they had paid big fees. Morello and Lupo in particular considered themselves perfectly safe from conviction, not only because they knew that Comito's testimony that they had been connected with the plant at Highland would be controverted by all the others who had been there with him, but because each of the bandit chiefs had prepared himself with the testimony of a physician that he had been ill in bed on the day that Comito would swear that he had been at Highland. Both had found that sort of evidence effective in similar circumstances before.

But this time Mr. Flynn was ready for them with counter alibis. He had had their family doctors, both Italians living in the Italian settlements, shadowed by his agents during the entire period of his watch on the counterfeiters themselves. Consequently, the Secret Service men were able to show not only that neither of these physicians had visited Morello or Lupo on the days they professed to be ill, but also just what the movements of the men of medicine had been on those particular days. Corroboration of this evidence came from an unexpected source. Gen. Theodore A. Bingham, who was police commissioner during this period and was endeavoring to break up the gangs under Morello and Lupo, had had his own detectives trailing those undesirable aliens for several weeks covering the time they claimed to have been ill in their beds. The reports of these detectives, taken from the files at police headquarters, showed that Morello and Lupo had left New York from the Grand Central Station for Poughkeepsie on the same days that Comito had previously testified they had visited the counterfeiting plant at Highland.

Mr. Flynn was further prepared to convict the entire gang of counterfeiters on other testimony than that of his own men or of Comito. To this end not only did the Secret Service men at the Grand Central Station and at the station at Poughkeepsie corroborate Comito as to the visit of

Morello to Highland, but the conductor and brakemen on the trains coming and going, the ticket agent and a newsboy at Poughkeepsie, the livery stable man who drove him from the village to the farm, the letter carrier on the country road, and the proprietor and clerks of the drug store in Poughkeepsie where he used the telephone, came to court and swore positively that they had seen the maimed Sicilian going to or coming from the counterfeiting plant on the day in question. As many witnesses testified to having seen Lupo on the day he had visited Highland, and additional evidence against him was found in letters, which experts proved to be in his handwriting, that he had sent to Comito at the farm on counterfeiting business.

The evidence against the other six principals was as overwhelming. Mr. Flynn had in court merchants and their clerks who identified Cina and Callacchio as the men who had come with Comito to purchase the printing press, the paper, dies, inks, and all the other material used at the Highland plant. Express and freight agents testified to delivering these articles to different members of the counterfeiting gang, whom they pointed out to the jury. Silvestro, Giglio, Palermo and Cecela, as well as Cina and Callacchio, were identified as having frequently traveled between New York and the farm at Highland by a veritable cloud of witnesses — railroad conductors, trainmen, newsboys, village tradesmen, farmers, school children. In all, about three hundred witnesses against the counterfeiters were heard. The trial lasted three weeks, and it ended in the conviction of the eight prisoners and their sentence to a total of 150 years' imprisonment. So far as they were concerned, the new broom had swept clean.

THE MOTION PICTURE TEACHER

THAT IS BRINGING THE INTIMATE KNOWLEDGE OF GEOGRAPHY, HISTORY, LITERATURE, AND SCIENCE TO THE EYES OF ALL THE PEOPLE — WHAT THE CINEMATOGRAPH IS DOING TO TEACH THE PUBLIC HOW TO FIGHT TUBERCULOSIS AND OTHER INFECTIOUS DISEASES — ITS SERVICES TO SOCIOLOGISTS, TO THE POLICE, AND TO TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

BY

CARL HOLLIDAY

YOU now have Shakespeare reeled off a spool and human life taught at the end of a crank. You travel over land and sea without leaving your seat and see the great personages of the world perform their mighty deeds. We unconsciously derive knowledge of life and the world which makes a difference in our entire viewpoint."

So said the Rev. Herbert Jump, of Oakland, Cal., in a recent lecture at the University of California. The average intelligent American does not at all comprehend the significance of this new and powerful agency in education. Mr. Thomas A. Edison has said, "I mean to try to do away with school books;" Professor Münsterberg, of Harvard, has invented a cinematographic nerve test; the United States Government is using pictures to show its officers and congressional committees the status of affairs in Panama, the Philippines, and Alaska; Congress has before it a bill to appropriate a large sum for moving pictures in the Washington City schools; Beerbohm Tree, the most famous of English actors, has said, "I have no doubt the moving picture will be one of the most important aids to education." The state of Texas recently bought a large number of projecting machines to

be used throughout its school system; such cities as New York, Chicago, Cleveland, and Detroit make frequent use of motion pictures to instruct their children.

All this means a revolution in pedagogy. It means vividness where vagueness has reigned before. It means a true visualization and realization of life where hitherto only an indefinite printed description of it was acquired. As the Rev. Robert Burdette recently said: "The picture show is the hand-maiden of education. It is difficult to estimate its true value. It is a great teacher." Members of the Académie Française, in reply to a question from the Paris *Figaro*, recently declared themselves in favor of this living photography in the schools of France. The Prussian authorities last winter used motion pictures in one of the most advanced educational systems in the world — the schools of Berlin. And the faculty of the University of Rochester recently introduced a four-year course in the art and science of cinematography. By means of this speechless pedagogue the American people have probably learned more during the last five years about the development of American social life and about the physical, industrial, and social geography of the world than during any previous quarter of a century.

Far more important, however, is its use in teaching people how to combat disease and death. The United States is saving millions of dollars' worth of workers annually because the motion picture is teaching them how to live. The National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis is using a film to illustrate the ravages of the white plague and the methods by which they can be stopped. The Dental Society, of Youngstown, is teaching the children, free of charge, the principles of oral hygiene. The University of Minnesota, through its extension work, is showing thousands of farmers how to handle cream and butter, how to make the Babcock test, how to mix cattle feed, and how to cook a wholesome meal. The Mississippi Federation of Woman's Clubs, in cooperation with the State Board of Health, is sending motion pictures over swamp, valley, and hill to explain to the people the menace of dirty dairies and of the disease-carrying fly, the proper care of the baby, and other things that will aid people to become healthy. The Vermont State Board of Health has procured a machine that possesses its own electric generator, so that the inhabitants not only of the city but of the country may see vividly the dangers of tuberculosis. Chairman George P. Fraser, of the Detroit Public Health League, recently declared that the message of public hygiene must be carried throughout his state by means of the motion picture. The street railway authorities of Düsseldorf and Vienna, to avoid further accidents, are teaching by this modern method the correct and the incorrect ways of entering and leaving cars. "The anti-fly, pure milk, anti-drunkenness, and social justice films are the most powerful teachers in the country. In overwhelming majority the film dramas encourage goodness and kindness, virtue and courage," one authority says.

The medical profession is awake to the possibilities of this new means of instructing and illustrating. At a recent meeting of three hundred visiting physicians at Mercy Hospital, Denver, a motion picture, obtained with the aid of the X-ray, showed all the processes of digestion and an operation for grafting a healthy bone into an arm from which a diseased bone had been taken. At the third annual session of the Clinical Congress of Surgeons, in New York City, Dr. Lewis Gregory Cole astonished his fellow workers with a motion picture of the serial radiography of the stomach, in which he exhibited by aid of the X-ray all the stages of digestion, or rather of indigestion, from the moment food entered a diseased stomach — a series of pictures which will aid greatly hereafter in the study of Ulcerated stomachs and intestines. Dr. T. H. Welsenburg, professor of Clinical Neurology in the Philadelphia Medico-Chirurgical College, uses twenty-five thousand feet of motion pictures in his teaching or lecturing to illustrate nervous and mental diseases. It is evident, therefore, that in the battle against human disease and death the motion picture is going to play an astonishing part.

The usefulness of motion pictures in

MANUFACTURING THE "WILD WEST" TO ORDER

TO REPRODUCE FAITHFULLY THE HABITS, COSTUMES, AND SURROUNDINGS OF PRIMITIVE LIFE FOR THE DIVERSION AND INSTRUCTION OF MILLIONS OF PEOPLE WHO OTHERWISE COULD LEARN OF THEM ONLY THROUGH BOOKS OF REFERENCE OR FICTION

By courtesy of the Eclair Film Company, New York

MAKING MOTION PICTURES ESPECIALLY FOR WOMEN

TO ILLUSTRATE FROM WEEK TO WEEK THE CREATIONS OF AMERICAN FASHION DESIGNERS, A USE OF THE CINEMATOGRAPH THAT SPREADS WIDELY THE INFLUENCE OF THE BEST CURRENT TASTE IN DRESS

Photo. by J. C. Hemment Copyright by the Jungle Film Co.

AMERICAN DOGS AND AFRICAN GAME

MOTION PICTURES OF MR. PAUL J. RAINEY'S PACK OF DOGS PURSUING A CHETAH TO THE TOP OF A SMALL TREE IN SOUTH AFRICA

social welfare work has been proved by lecturers on sociology and kindred matters. Every year thousands of feet of film, picturing children playing in public playgrounds, boy scouts in their encampments, excursions of city children to the country, the public care here and abroad of the infirm, the unfortunate, and the dangerously immoral, the prevention of accidents, the cleaning of streets, and the reclaiming of filthy vacant lots — these and a thousand other subjects are teaching the people how to live better, cleaner, happier lives. Prof. Milton Fairchild, of Baltimore, Md., has urged that state universities appoint "moral instructors" to go over the state with motion picture machines and to give daily visual instruction to the public. The extension department of the University of Wisconsin seized upon the idea some time ago, and at the last annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association, at Madison, the chief of the bureau of social centre development, under the supervision of this extension department, demonstrated how the pictures were being used to cut down truancy. The University of Minnesota is using the pictures in thus training not only the pupils but their parents. One of this institution's latest reels, taken under the supervision of the school of agriculture, depicts a group of eight students at a dining table observing all the rules of etiquette and at another table a group of eight breaking every rule known to cultivated beings. Such pictures make an impression where printed admonition would go unheeded. "They are going to make a lot of difference with the teacher," says Mr. Edison. "They will take her out of that terrible, monotonous treadmill of work that she has been going through all these years and stimulate her instead of making life a drudgery for her."

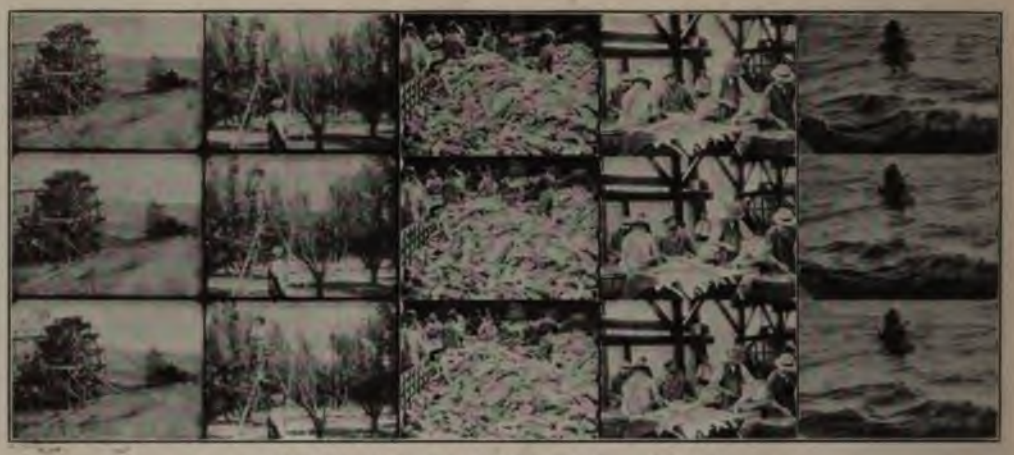
Motion pictures seem destined to have a repressing influence on recklessness and crime. Professor Münsterberg's invention — the cinematograph nerve test for chauffeurs, pilots, and other men in charge of passenger and traffic conveyances — places the candidate in a motor car in a dark room before a moving picture. A child in the picture darts before him; a team dashes directly toward him; a heap

Photographed by J. C. Hemment. Copyright by the Jungle Film Company

Photographed by J. C. Hemment. Copyright by the Jungle Film Company

A PERMANENT RECORD OF A PASSING ERA IN AFRICA

TWO SCENES FROM THE "RAINEY AFRICAN HUNT" FILMS THAT SHOW WILD ANIMALS HERED AT A WATER HOLE. IN THE UPPER PICTURE ARE MONKEYS, AN ANTELOPE, A ZEBRA, A RHINOCEROS; IN THE LOWER PICTURE, AN ELEPHANT AND HER YOUNG.



FILMS THAT MAKE BOOK KNOWLEDGE REAL

BY SHOWING THE PROCESSES OF INDUSTRY THROUGH A COMPLETE CYCLE OF THEIR MOTIONS IN ACTUAL OPERATION

of rock suddenly appears. In every case the would-be chauffeur must act immediately; his steadiness or unsteadiness of nerve is plainly revealed. It should be remembered that such a test is as realistic as life itself; so real was the dog in a recent picture at Brenham, Tex., that a dog in the house dashed at him and tore the screen to pieces.

The Paris police are considering the suggestion that they place a moving picture camera in hidden nooks along dangerous thoroughfares and thus obtain accurate photographs of every incident in the street at every hour of the day. It is wiser, however, to destroy the causes of crime than to wait until it is grown before attacking it. The bitterest foe of crime is knowledge.

The schools, the railroads, the charitable organizations, the state militia, are now entering the battle with the motion picture machine. The Georgia Central Railroad has lately prepared films to teach its

By courtesy of the Kinemacolor Company of America

A PICTURE LESSON IN NATURAL HISTORY

ONE FILM FROM A REEL THAT SHOWS THE ENTIRE PROCESS OF HATCHING AND FEEDING OSTRICH CHICKS. THE PICTURES OF THIS SERIES ARE SHOWN ON THE SCREEN IN THE COLORS OF NATURE

Copyright by Brown Bros., New York

THE "PROPERTY ROOM" OF A MOTION PICTURE STUDIO

IN WHICH THE COSTUMES OF THE ACTORS ARE MADE, ALTERED, AND STORED. THE BISHOP'S VESTMENTS AT THE RIGHT OF THE PICTURE APPEAR IN USE IN THE SCENE FROM THE DRAMATIZATION OF THE LEGEND OF LANCELOT AND ELAINE, THAT IS SHOWN BELOW

By courtesy of the Vitagraph Company of America

TRANSLATING THE MUSIC OF POETRY INTO THE POETRY OF MOTION

TENNYSON'S "ELAINE" AS IT IS COSTUMED AND ENACTED ON THE SCREEN BEFORE THE AUDIENCES OF THE MOTION PICTURE THEATRES

By courtesy of the Vitagraph Company of America

A SCENE FROM "A TALE OF TWO CITIES"

A DRAMATIZATION OF DICKENS'S ROMANCE AND ONE OF THE LONGEST MOTION PICTURE PLAYS THAT HAS BEEN PRODUCED, FOR ITS PRESENTATION REQUIRES ABOUT AN HOUR

men the causes and prevention of wrecks; English social welfare workers have exhibited a reel emphasizing the folly of violence in strikes; the Michigan State Guards have gained many recruits by explaining in pictures the necessity and value of the militia. Indeed, the advocate for or against armies and state militia finds ready all the ammunition he can possibly use. On the market are thousands upon thousands of feet of army manœuvres, drills, military methods of ridding a country of disease, and pictures of military schools that might be used profitably by all teachers of soldiers; and there are enough realistic views of the horrors of the recent Turkish and Italian wars to gain thousands of converts for the peace movement.

Information was formerly measured by the page; it may soon be computed by the foot. One motion picture firm is sending out letters announcing that it has in stock ten thousand *feet* of architecture, thirty thousand *feet* of science, and ninety thousand *feet* of geography.

The pictures are making information cheaper and more easily obtained than ever before in the world's history. Indeed, through several agencies it is literally being given away. The Northern Pacific Railway Company has spent thousands of dollars showing by motion pictures the geography, resources, industries, and possibilities of the country through which the road passes, and the Great Northern Railway is preparing for the same spreading or "unrolling" of facts. Marshall Field

By courtesy of the Vitagraph Company of America

"WE RAN A MIGHTY MERCHANDISE OF NIGGERS IN THE HOLD"

AN EXAMPLE OF THE VIVID POWER OF MOTION PICTURES TO REALIZE TO THE EYES OF MODERN AUDIENCES THE DETAILS OF SCENES THE ORIGINALS OF WHICH HAVE DISAPPEARED FOREVER

By courtesy of the Vitagraph Company of America

VITALIZING A SCHOOLBOOK CLASSIC

OF "RIP VAN WINKLE'S" EXPERIENCES AS THE CHILDREN MAY NOW SEE THEM REPRODUCED IN LIFE-LIKE ACTION BY THE "MOVIES"

A NEW WAY OF TEACHING AMERICAN HISTORY

THE STORY OF THE BATTLES OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR RETOLD IN MOTION PICTURES THAT BRING TO THE EYE THE LIFE AND ACTION AS WELL AS THE COSTUMES AND EQUIPMENT OF THE MEN WHO FOUGHT

By courtesy of the Vitagraph Company of America

"THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG"

A VITAL REPRODUCTION OF THE SPIRIT AND OF MUCH OF THE HISTORICAL DETAIL OF ONE OF THE MOST STRIKING EVENTS OF THE CIVIL WAR

& Co. have received permission from the Chicago school board to show the school children, free of charge, the entire process of the cotton industry from the planting of the seed to the wearing of the dress. The Iron and Steel Institute, of Pittsburg, has taught its audiences by pictures the passing of the iron from the mine into the finished product. Not long ago Rear-Admiral Colby M. Chester showed before the National Geographic Society a reel covering the entire thirty miles of the Panama Canal, and explained the workings of the vast undertaking.

Chicago, Cleveland, and Detroit are using the pictures in the public schools; Pasadena, Cal., is equipping three of its school buildings with machines; the large Evans School, of Denver, is instructing not only the pupils but the parents by this means; Paducah, Ky., uses this method regularly in teaching history, geography, literature, and various sciences; the school board of South Bend, Ind., owns a machine for social-centre purposes; Pueblo, Col., instructs with motion pictures in its high school; the state of Texas has film constantly in use by its Department of Education; and the town of Biggs, Cal., runs a municipal theatre for educational purposes. And where the schools have not pictures the teachers are demanding them. The Board of Education of South Orange, N. J., recently placed itself on record favoring the use of the motion picture in the schools, and the ministers of the town assembled and ordered "that the board of education be petitioned to take immediate steps in this direction." Prof. Arthur G. Balcom, supervisor of lectures for the Newark Board of Education, recommended in his annual report that a fireproof room for motion pictures be incorporated in the auditorium plan of all schoolhouses built hereafter. About the same time Mr. Milton C. Cooper, district superintendent of schools in Philadelphia, asked for the purchase of a motion picture projector for every school in the city. Superintendent Martindale, of Detroit, not content with having them in his school houses, wants them outdoors also, and has said publicly: "The use of the playgrounds for moving picture shows is feasible. The playgrounds afford natural out-of-door auditoriums which will accommodate one thousand or more people each, and the pictures thrown on a large screen would be plainly visible to all."

By courtesy of the Caumont Film Company

HOW MOTION PICTURES REPRODUCE MOTION

TWO SUCCESSIVE FILMS FROM A REEL SHOWING MARINES DRILLING ON A FRENCH WARSHIP. SIXTEEN SUCH FILMS ARE TAKEN EVERY SECOND. A MAN WALKING THREE MILES AN HOUR ADVANCES ABOUT FOUR INCHES IN ONE SIXTEENTH OF A SECOND. APPROXIMATELY THIS CHANGE OF POSITION APPEARS IN THE TWO PICTURES OF THE MARINE AT THE RIGHT SIDE OF THE FILMS

Only one thing has until recently been lacking—the coming of the talking motion picture, but this has recently been announced in both France and America as an assured fact. Think of it as we may, "this new force has entered into the educational progress of modern American life. You may call it the five-cent university or the dime civilizer, but its influence is real and sure just the same." For it is better and easier to learn from life than from books.

WHAT WE ARE TRYING TO DO

TO MAKE HEALTHY AND SUCCESSFUL WOMEN OF CITY-BRED GIRLS BY METHODS OF TEACHING THAT SUBORDINATE HIGH AVERAGES IN FORMAL SCHOLARSHIP TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CAPACITY FOR HAPPINESS AND INTEREST IN REAL LIFE

BY

THIRTY-FIVE TEACHERS

OF THE WASHINGTON IRVING HIGH SCHOOL IN NEW YORK CITY

(ILLUSTRATED WITH PHOTOGRAPHS TAKEN ESPECIALLY FOR THE WORLD'S WORK BY STUART WOOD)

SOME of us in a faculty of two hundred and eighteen teachers are trying to get back to first principles. Some of us are trying to make our practice tally with our preaching. Every one who writes on education says it must not be the absorption of knowledge; it is not the transmission of a course of study from a book or a teacher to a boy; but it is the culture of men (President David Starr Jordan), the improvement of the human machine (Arnold Bennett), the perfection of womanhood (Prof. John M. Tyler), the formation of character (Prof. William H. Maxwell). This has been preached so often that listeners are tired of it. But no school is doing it. They are all built upon the model for doing what their own promoters say education is not doing.

MAKING EVEN SCIENCE ATTRACTIVE

A SUCCESSFUL MOMENT IN THE EFFORT TO GIVE HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS JOY IN THEIR WORK

Our school and other high schools are not organized upon the character basis nor the human improvement basis but on the knowledge idea. We are teachers of English or of geometry. No one prepared us to teach any of the essential qualities of superior womanhood: courtesy, gentleness, firmness, industry, courage, and nobility. Though these are proclaimed as the greatest business of a teacher, systems treat them as incidental. Knowledge is sorted into courses and every one of us is given a piece. A girl is at the mercy of a score of knowledge specialists for four years and then, if she has lasted, she is marked "Educated."

We did not make this system; no living man devised it. No publicist defends it. But Dr. Eliot declares that educational practice is fifty years behind its doctrine. But we are so habituated to think of training in terms of present schooling

that our purposes have become a thing to talk about; and that's all.

What we are trying to do is to stop doing things as we have always done them ways as any one. We want to know, first, what we are for and then how to vitalize our business so that any one can see that we are intelligently moving toward our desire.

"WONDERFUL MASSES OF YOUNG LIFE"

WHICH THE TEACHERS ARE TRYING TO HELP GROW INTO HEALTHY AND HAPPY WOMANHOOD BY DEVELOPING THEIR POWER TO UNDERSTAND, AND TO ENJOY MEETING, THE PRACTICAL ISSUES OF EVERY-DAY LIVING

and to determine what change in any girl ought to ensue and to get whatever done by her that will produce that change. We are as habituated to the ding-dong of school

There must be some real basis for the agreement of all the writers on education that the old mediæval aim of school to impart traditional knowledge is out of

LEARNING ONE OF THE HOME ARTS

THAT NOW MUST BE TAUGHT AT SCHOOL BECAUSE THEY ARE NO LONGER TAUGHT AT HOME

AFTER LATIN, LAUNDERING

A NEW AND NECESSARY SEQUENCE IN THE TRAINING OF CITY-BRED GIRLS WHO HAVE FEW HOME FACILITIES FOR LEARNING HOUSEHOLD ARTS

place in twentieth century America. The schools of this people owe their existence to a rejection of the purposes of older institutions; ours are the children of a change, nothing less than a Revolution. The Fathers of the Republic chose that what things had been done by the sanction of a king should become common interest and responsibility. They chose to build their own roads instead of royal highways. Whatever all the people by uniting could do with greater advantage they decided

A PRACTICAL LESSON IN TASTE

AND IN THE OPERATIONS OF DRESSMAKING THAT WILL BE A VITAL PART OF EVERY GIRL'S MATURE LIFE

to do together. Training of children became a universal concern. What schoolmen had decided to let people have was well enough for monarchies. We have no mission to continue that. What parents want should be the concern of American schools, since 1776. To stand *in loco parentis* ought to mean that we, the public parents of the children of a free people, are not engaged to promulgate any scheme or system of our own. What an intelligent mother wishes her daughter to become is what we are obligated to produce.

Therefore, we are trying to assist young, city-bred girls of thirteen and fourteen years of age to grow from what they are to what they ought to be at fifteen, eighteen, twenty, and eighty years of age. To us the children are the important considerations. The courses of study are of less importance. We wish to make the greatest success of every girl, and to do this we prefer maid to method, child to course, daughter to dogma.

What we are trying to do is to use the

STUDYING MODERN PENMANSHIP

OF THE KIND THAT WILL BE MOST USEFUL TO THOSE GIRLS WHO LEAVE SCHOOL TO ENTER BUSINESS OFFICES

studies the system requires, but to fit them to the girl, instead of perpetuating a round of exercises which some girls may follow but others may fail to do and thereupon lose interest and fall away. We are trying to abandon the fallacy that we should be loyal to our school or to our subjects or to high standards of scholarship or to any abstract, or formal, or traditional idea, at the expense of an immortal soul. We would rather have a hundred girls growing, every one in accordance with the best we can inspire her to do, than to raise the

PREPARATION FOR BUSINESS

BOOKKEEPING FOR GIRLS WHO MUST MEET THE PROBLEM OF SELF-SUPPORT WHEN THEY LEAVE SCHOOL

BUSINESS TRAINING FOR TO-DAY

BY DUPLICATING IN THE SCHOOLROOM THE APPARATUS OF THE OFFICES INTO WHICH SOME OF THE GIRLS WILL GRADUATE

SCIENCE FOR USE AT HOME

A COURSE IN COOKING AND DIET THAT BRINGS CHEMISTRY AND HYGIENE INTO THEIR RELATION TO THE NEEDS OF DAILY LIFE

PRACTICE IN THE SOCIAL GRACES

THAT HAVE MORE TO DO WITH A GIRL'S SUCCESS IN LIFE THAN ALL THE FORMAL STUDIES OF A CONVENTIONAL SCHOOL COURSE

percentage of our passing marks for a few to the point that our general average is the highest in the world. We are for girls first and for high averages, too, but not at the expense of health, and happiness, and human interest. In this we recognize that we must constantly run the risk of condemnation by earnest educators who regard high schools as institutions only for the intellectually elect. We feel that a mother's love for her less gifted child is as noble as it is natural.

We know that there is no provision for the training of girls above thirteen who are slow, stupid, indolent, disrespectful, and untrained. Such need us more than the kind of girl which high school has often claimed as its only charge. High scholarship is not our chief business. Training all the children of all the people is. We have no fixed standard for our young people, except, for almost every one, a higher grade than she is at the moment occupying. We are trying to dismiss from our own minds the old belief that high school is a privilege. It is the right of all. If our service were what it should be, every girl of thirteen and upward should be getting it. We lose large numbers of girls. Every one who leaves before graduation is a failure of the American purpose of universal education. We are participants in that failure.

We are trying to discover and apply the forces by which girls are awakened, encouraged, and inspired to persevere. We are attempting to discard the unsuccessful spirit of criticism, correction, and blame which has become associated with our business. We would rather not appear as "correctors of youth." Success is positive, not negative. Reprimand, when overdone, defeatsits own purpose. Expectation of success is success. We select every day some piece of work which has been well done, some improvement that has been made, and send the girl responsible for it to her grade adviser. It breaks the tradition that a school girl reporting to someone must have been guilty of a fault. We

BABIES AS TEXTBOOKS

WORK THAT LOOKS FORWARD TO THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE GIRLS AS POTENRS OF THEIR OWN HOMES

ch girls doing right and to recog- Too much alertness in a teacher ion of wrong results in emphasis l. In time it reacts upon the and contaminates her nature. o proof that teachers are morally to girls of thirteen to eighteen. a school atmosphere fresh and loes not seem necessary to lecture f girls upon the fault of one. We general reprimands, no public We have no rules, no system ine. Our weak teachers can get our strong ones and eventually mplete control by capitalizing t of a class and recognizing that ge tendency of any thirty girls decency and gentle breeding. when we ruled by fear and mili- ods; we succeeded when we banpicion, mistrust, and desire to authority. Whenever our inas used in full measure the demdea of coöperation we have ourselves to go ahead.

courses as were not prescribed r authority have been prepared y. The tendency to imitate some se in some other school is no doubt here as elsewhere. But that only a list of subjects to be learned

CHEMISTRY THAT COUNTS

A GIRL LEARNING HOW TO PASTEURIZE MILK FOR A BABY'S USE AS WELL AS WHAT GERMS ARE AND THE HARM THEY DO

as knowledge, a purpose which all now declare is not the aim of education. The first thing with us in devising any new set of exercises is to formulate as well as we can what characteristics of a first-rate girl should be desired as a result of the time to be filled.

Take civics, for example. Thirty-eight lessons are allotted by the powers that be for us to fill under this head. What should you wish a girl to be after a year of thinking about the questions that the authorities would permit you to assemble under the name of civics? We conceived that a young woman of eighteen should feel a personal obligation to serve the common good. In so far as possible her habit of mind should be inspired with a lively

sense of duty toward her fellows. Such a girl is the present purpose of the course in civics. The women who volunteer to take these classes confer from time to time regarding the details. The first outline shows that these classes will discuss the fundamental bonds of society — love, friendship, consideration, respect, patriotism — what an intelligent mother would want her daughter to know. Coöperation of women teachers builds up a course like that, not for information-giving but for use. The more such a course departs from the conventional toward the personal and the valuable the more askance the conservative teacher looks at it; because long years

GIVING THE GIRLS A SENSE OF THE MAJESTY OF HISTORY

BY PARTICIPATION IN AN INSPIRING PAGEANT WHEN THE CORNERSTONE OF THEIR GREAT NEW SCHOOLHOUSE IN IRVING PLACE WAS LAID

and what they mean for everyone. Why is the family the unit of government? What holds the family together? What threatens it? What do you owe your mother? How would you assist a younger sister who was growing away from her parents? What is the limit of parental absorption of the lives of daughters? All the course in civics is personal. It is for use.

The business girl, about to seek employment in some sort of office, needs and should have enlightenment and she should have it from business women who know what offices are. This is social service. This is of habit incline us to judge of school service in terms not of personal value but of school usage. So when we added to the exercises of school girls seven years ago the dressing and undressing of babies, school folks shook their heads. Every change must always bring its head-shake. Dancing came into New York schools as regular instruction through our classes ten years ago. Official suspicion required its modification and concealment under the head of "esthetics."

The forms of good breeding are admittedly of such necessity to a woman and confessedly so impossible of satisfactory ac-

n at home, that they must find a place in a course of study with a ook and a teacher. Yet such is e of tradition that, although every a board of education believes this, dares act accordingly and authorize school the study and practice of e with full recognition of credits for on and graduation. We are trying tain that the mother and father's r the daughter are a real and vital and must be ours. The changed s of the city-bred girl demand teachers and not defenders of a ich never was designed for our which never has been proved ny girl at all.

nconcilable difficulty of running ntred school upon the study-anization arises from the matter The father and mother, whom y we should stand for, want anything else a healthy, beau-y daughter. The typical high the other hand, does not put uty, or happiness first, nor even The prime consideration which age urges upon us is to cover of study. The main duty which mber as emphasized by your ol teachers was not health, beauty, ppiness, but hard work. There neral a fear of departure from this hat we have to keep ourselves from down growing girls with night hat whiten their cheeks, blear their d taint their breath. Instinctively eacher, following her mother heart, to keep, day by day, the radiant s of youth in her children. We e attempting to write this account ce and forever renounced the fallacy ccess or advantage to Society comes he kind of hard work which high glorify. That which moves the orward is youth. We would send nen charged with it, not because sweet thing, a pretty conceit, but it is the only potency that can save ld. It is a force, a physical fact, an of progress, really progress itself. ou lose it, at eighty or ninety, you reafter a dead weight. An institu-t destroys it at twenty commits a civic crime. We have seen high school girls grow into old women in four years. We had rather help an adolescent girl to find encouragement for a robust motherhood and promise of a virile race.

We are trying to capitalize for their own instruction the talents of all the girls instead of imposing upon them all the time our own conceptions. Every day the girls assemble as a public forum. Every gathering has its own girl chairman, secretary, and programme committee. They change daily. Every girl gets some training in courage, self-possession, and service for the common good. It is part of the day's business to inform others what the world is doing and discussing. The WORLD'S WORK is reproduced by girls who study it. All notices, announcements, and sermonizing which school men ordinarily furnish to assemblies of pupils are done by girls. Part of it is spontaneous; much of it is at the suggestion of teachers. Stereopticon exhibitions are chiefly in the hands of girls. Addresses made by adult visitors are at once summarized by girls called at random from the audience. It delights a speaker mightily to hear himself reviewed by attentive listeners. The instincts of all normal young persons for fun are not suppressed but fostered.

English classics get themselves presented in the school theatre, which has footlights, scenery, and an asbestos drop. The girls write and give their own plays. The sentiment is clean and healthy. Every year the entire company of more than five thousand build a play together. First every girl writes as a composition exercise her version of the coming play. It has no central motive. It is unconnected atoms. From the thousands of conceptions, committees select the newest and most suitable. A central committee strings them into line. Assembly discussions engender a connected motive. This purpose of the play, once voted on, makes the elaboration and arrangement of the parts inevitable. You have the Conflict of Work and Play appearing in "Rip Van Winkle's Dream." You have the Choice of Things Worth While growing into "The Vision of Youth." Class by class, the groups select their portions. There are no stars, no risk of

failure from the absence of any one, because every development of the story is entrusted to thirty or sixty girls. Their rehearsal comes in school hours as a part of music, or of declamation, or of practice with the teacher of calisthenics. The classes in costume-design sketch the dresses; the sewing classes make them. The management committee gets an armory and invites Mrs. Roosevelt or Mrs. Hughes or Mrs. Dix or Mrs. Gaynor to be the guest of honor. All the teachers of the schools from which the girls came into high school sit as guests in the capacious galleries. "Papa" Mc Gowan, the school's chief sponsor in the Board of Education, circulates among the guests, insisting that what they shall see has taken not an instant from "regular" school work. And then the wonderful mass of beautiful young girlhood, to the music of the regimental band, shows you for two hours how Right, in spite of Error and Despair, always triumphs in the end.

If you frankly endeavor to show the educational significance of school entertainments, express the belief that the pleasure of them is sufficient in a girls' school, you are sure to run athwart of fearful educators who persuade themselves that what is pleasant must be naughty. We are trying as foster-parents to avoid the dreary mistake of those strict fathers who have driven their daughters into evil because of the utter lack of merriment at home. For the last twenty years the amusements of New York have been growing more salacious, more immoral, more clever, more witty, more alluring. Almost every kind of thing that is attractive to young folks: music, sociability, politeness, variety, beauty, color, interest, noise, vivacity, and wit, has been taken by the devil to lure girls away from us. We are trying not to wince when dear old blunderers conclude we must be slighting "regular" work when we encourage our children to gratify their God-given appetites for fun and happiness. This is Nature's spring-time for a girl. Her little head is whirling with romance: her little heart is bursting with sympathy. Soul-sunshine is as vital to her healthy growth and to her moral strength in days to come as food and drink are to her body. You can starve her sympathies and grind her heart out with your high standards and solemn praise of drudgery. You can drive her out of school, away from the cleanest associations she has, and then — God help her! No conscientious system-soaked teacher can.

We are trying to put the brightest side of every school subject forward, to substitute artistry for drudgery, to eliminate the disagreeable, and to make work what every expert authority who ever analyzed and wrote upon it says it ought to be: the greatest joy in the world which always blesses him who finds it.

For the accomplishment of our purpose we have come into as beautiful and completely appointed a building as was ever furnished by any city for the training of its daughters. The Board of Education encouraged us to plan it. Every teacher had a hand in it. We studied schools all over America and Europe. We drew the plans and specified the equipment. The board's architect made our suggestions workable. We have, in one great company, girls pursuing every kind of work they want to the extent that the Board of Education will permit. We have kitchens, bed-rooms, laundries, nurseries, and parlors for the training of every girl in housewifery. We have banks, stores, offices, studios, dressmaking establishments, and telephones for the preparation of young business women. We have book collections for the training of library keepers. We have the staples of culture: the languages, literature, sciences, and mathematics for the training of the minds, preparing for teachers' schools and colleges. We have the limitations of strict courses and restrictive examintions to keep us within the bounds which an organized system deems necessary.

What we are trying to do is to move and not to stagnate; to catch the best spirit of the time and not to assume that we received it by bequest from some legal possessor of it. We are trying to work together instead of following a leader. We are trying to conceive what the better generation is which the Fathers of this Republic expected from free public schools. In so far as the limitation of system and our own inexpertness permit, we are trying to help the intelligent parents of New York to furnish the girl part of that generation.

THE NEW FREEDOM

A CALL FOR THE EMANCIPATION OF THE GENEROUS ENERGIES OF A PEOPLE

BY

WOODROW WILSON

V

LET THERE BE LIGHT

THE concern of patriotic men is to put our Government again on its right basis, by substituting the popular will for the rule of guardians, the processes of common counsel for those of private arrangement. In order to do this, a first necessity is to open the doors and let in the light on all affairs which the people have a right to know about.

In the first place, it is necessary to open up all the processes of our politics. They have been too secret, too complicated, too roundabout; they have consisted too much of private conferences and secret understandings, of the control of legislation by men who were not legislators, but who stood outside and dictated, controlling oftentimes by very questionable means, which they would not have dreamed of allowing to become public. The whole process must be altered. We must take the selection of candidates for office, for example, out of the hands of small groups of men, of little coteries, out of the hands of machines working behind closed doors, and put it into the hands of the people themselves again by means of direct primaries and elections to which candidates of every sort and degree may have free access. We must substitute public for private machinery.

It is necessary, in the second place, to give society command of its own economic life again by denying to those who conduct the great modern operations of business the privacy that used to belong properly enough to men who used only their own capital and their

individual energy in business. The processes of capital must be as open as the processes of politics. Those who make use of the great modern accumulations of wealth, gathered together by the dragnet process of the sale of stocks and bonds, and piling up of reserves, must be treated as under a public obligation; they must be made responsible for their business methods to the great communities which are in fact their working partners, so that the hand which makes correction shall easily reach them and a new principle of responsibility be felt throughout their structure and operation.

What are the right methods of politics? Why, the right methods are those of public discussion: the methods of leadership open and above board, not closeted with "boards of guardians" or anybody else, but brought out under the sky, where honest eyes can look upon them and honest eyes can judge of them.

If there is nothing to conceal, then why conceal it? If it is a public game, why play it in private? If it is a public game, then why not come out into the open and play it in public? You have got to cure diseased politics as we nowadays cure tuberculosis, by making all the people who suffer from it live out of doors; not only spend their days out of doors and walk around, but sleep out of doors; always remain in the open, where they will be accessible to fresh, nourishing, and revivifying influences.

I, for one, have the conviction that government ought to be all outside and no inside. I, for my part, believe that there ought to be no place where anything can be done that everybody does not know about. It would be very inconvenient for some gentlemen, probably, if government were all outside, but we have consulted their susceptibilities too long already. It is barely possible that some of these gentlemen are unjustly suspected; in that case they owe it to themselves to come out and operate in the light. The very fact that so much in politics is done in the dark, behind closed doors, promotes suspicion. Everybody knows that corruption thrives in secret places, and avoids public places, and we believe it a fair presumption that secrecy means impropriety. So, our honest politicians and our honorable corporation heads owe it to their reputations to bring their activities out into the open.

At any rate, whether they like it or not, these affairs are going to be dragged into the open. We are more anxious about their reputations than they are themselves. We are too solicitous for their morals, — if they are not,— to permit them longer to continue subject to the temptations of secrecy. You know there is temptation in loneliness

and secrecy. Haven't you experienced it? I have. We are never so proper in our conduct as when everybody can look and see exactly what we are doing. If you are off in some distant part of the world and suppose that nobody who lives within a mile of your home is anywhere around, there are times when you adjourn your ordinary standards. You say to yourself: "Well, I'll have a fling this time; nobody will know anything about it." If you were on the desert of Sahara, you would feel that you might permit yourself,— well, say, some slight latitude in conduct; but if you saw one of your immediate neighbors coming the other way on a camel,— you would behave yourself until he got out of sight. The most dangerous thing in the world is to get off where nobody knows you. I advise you to stay around among the neighbors, and then you may keep out of jail. That is the only way some of us can keep out of jail.

Publicity is one of the purifying elements of politics. The best thing that you can do with anything that is crooked is to lift it up where people can see that it is crooked, and then it will either straighten itself out or disappear. Nothing checks all the bad practices of politics like public exposure. You can't be crooked in the light. I don't know whether it has ever been tried or not; but I venture to say, purely from observation, that it can't be done.

And so the people of the United States have made up their minds to do a healthy thing for both politics and big business. Permit me to mix a few metaphors: They are going to open doors; they are going to let up blinds; they are going to drag sick things into the open air and into the light of the sun. They are going to organize a great hunt, and smoke certain animals out of their burrows. They are going to unearth the beast in the jungle in which when they hunted they were caught by the beast instead of catching him. They have determined, therefore, to take an axe and raze the jungle, and then see where the beast will find cover. And I, for my part, bid them God-speed. The jungle breeds nothing but infection and shelters nothing but the enemies of mankind.

And nobody is going to get caught in our hunt except the beasts that prey. Nothing is going to be cut down or injured that anybody ought to wish preserved.

You know the story of the Irishman who, while digging a hole, was asked, "Pat, what are you doing,— digging a hole?" And he replied, "No, sir; I am digging the dirt, and laving the hole." It was probably the same Irishman who, seen digging around the wall of a house, was asked, "Pat, what are you doing?" And he answered,

"Faith, I am letting the dark out of the cellar." Now, that's exactly what we want to do,— let the dark out of the cellar.

Take, first, the relations existing between politics and business.

It is perfectly legitimate, of course, that the business interests of the country should not only enjoy the protection of the law, but that they should be in every way furthered and strengthened and facilitated by legislation. The country has no jealousy of any connection between business and politics which is a legitimate connection. It is not in the least averse from open efforts to accommodate law to the material development which has so strengthened the country in all that it has undertaken by supplying its extraordinary life with its necessary physical foundations.

But the illegitimate connections between business and legislation are another matter. I would wish to speak on this subject with soberness and circumspection. I have no desire to excite anger against anybody. That would be easy, but it would do no particular good. I wish, rather, to consider an unhappy situation in a spirit that may enable us to account for it, to some extent, and so perhaps get at the causes and the remedy. Mere denunciation doesn't help much to clear up a matter so involved as is the complicity of business with evil politics in America.

Every community is vaguely aware that the political machine upon which it looks askance has certain very definite connections with men who are engaged in business on a large scale, and the suspicion which attaches to the machine itself has begun to attach also to business enterprises, just because these connections are known to exist. If these connections were open and avowed, if everybody knew just what they involved and just what use was being made of them, there would be no difficulty in keeping an eye upon affairs and in controlling them by public opinion. But, unfortunately, the whole process of law-making in America is a very obscure one. There is no highway of legislation, but there are many by-ways. Parties are not organized in such a way in our legislatures as to make any one group of men avowedly responsible for the course of legislation. The whole process of discussion, if any discussion at all takes place, is private and shut away from public scrutiny and knowledge. There are so many circles within circles, there are so many indirect and private ways of getting at legislative action, that our communities are constantly uneasy during legislative sessions. It is this confusion and obscurity and privacy of our legislative method that gives the political machine its opportunity. There is no publicly responsible

man or group of men who are known to formulate legislation and to take charge of it from the time of its introduction until the time of its enactment. It has, therefore, been possible for an outside force,— the political machine, the body of men who nominated the legislators and who conducted the contest for their election,— to assume the rôle of control. Business men who desired something done in the way of changing the law under which they were acting, or who wished to prevent legislation which seemed to them to threaten their own interests, have known that there was this definite body of persons to resort to, and they have made terms with them. They have agreed to supply them with money for campaign expenses and to stand by them in all other cases where money was necessary if in return they might resort to them for protection or for assistance in matters of legislation. Legislators looked to a certain man who was not even a member of their body for instructions as to what they were to do with particular bills. The machine, which was the centre of party organization, was the natural instrument of control, and men who had business interests to promote naturally resorted to the body which exercised the control.

There need have been nothing sinister about this. If the whole matter had been open and candid and honest, public criticism would not have centred upon it. But the use of money always results in demoralization, and goes beyond demoralization to actual corruption. There are two kinds of corruption,— the crude and obvious sort, which consists in direct bribery, and the much subtler, more dangerous, sort, which consists in a corruption of the will. Business men who have tried to set up a control in politics through the machine have more and more deceived themselves, have allowed themselves to think that the whole matter was a necessary means of self-defence, have said that it was a necessary outcome of our political system. Having reassured themselves in this way, they have drifted from one thing to another until the questions of morals involved have become hopelessly obscured and submerged. How far away from the ideals of their youth have many of our men of business drifted, enmeshed in the vicious system,— how far away from the days when their fine young manhood was wrapped in "that chastity of honor which felt a stain like a wound!"

It is one of the happy circumstances of our time that the most intelligent of our business men have seen the mistake as well as the immorality of the whole bad business. The alliance between business and politics has been a burden to them,— an advantage, no doubt,

upon occasion, but a very questionable and burdensome advantage. It has given them great power, but it has also subjected them to a sort of slavery and a bitter sort of subserviency to politicians. They are as anxious to be freed from bondage as the country is to be rid of the influences and methods which it represents. Leading business men are now becoming great factors in the emancipation of the country from a system which was leading from bad to worse. There are those, of course, who are wedded to the old ways and who will stand out for them to the last, but they will sink into a minority and be overcome. The rest have found that their old excuse (namely, that it was necessary to defend themselves against unfair legislation) is no longer a good excuse; that there is a better way of defending themselves than through the private use of money. That better way is to take the public into their confidence, to make absolutely open all their dealings with legislative bodies and legislative officers, and let the public judge as between them and those with whom they are dealing.

This discovery on their part of what ought to have been obvious all along points out the way of reform; for undoubtedly publicity comes very near being the cure-all for political and economic maladies of this sort. But publicity will continue to be very difficult so long as our methods of legislation are so obscure and devious and private. I think it will become more and more obvious that the way to purify our politics is to simplify them, and that the way to simplify them is to establish responsible leadership. We have had no leadership at all inside our legislative bodies,— at any rate, no leadership which is definite enough to attract the attention and watchfulness of the country. Our only leadership having been that of irresponsible persons outside the legislatures who constitute the political machines, it has been extremely difficult for even the most watchful public opinion to keep track of the circuitous methods pursued. This undoubtedly lies at the root of the growing demand on the part of American communities everywhere for responsible leadership, for putting in authority and keeping in authority those whom they know and whom they can watch and whom they can constantly hold to account. The business of the country ought to be served by thoughtful and progressive legislation, but it ought to be served openly, candidly, advantageously, with a careful regard to letting everybody be heard and every interest be considered, the interest which is not backed by money as well as the interest which is; and this can be accomplished only by some simplification of our methods which will centre the public trust in

small groups of men who will lead, not by reason of legal authority, but by reason of their contact with and amenability to public opinion.

I am striving to indicate my belief that our legislative methods may well be reformed in the direction of giving more open publicity to every act, in the direction of setting up some form of responsible leadership on the floor of our legislative halls so that the people may know who is back of every bill and back of the opposition to it, and so that it may be dealt with in the open chamber rather than in the committee room. The light must be let in on all processes of law-making.

Legislation, as we nowadays conduct it, is not conducted in the open. It is not threshed out in open debate upon the floors of our assemblies. It is, on the contrary, framed, digested, and concluded in committee rooms. It is in committee rooms that legislation not desired by the interests dies. It is in committee rooms that legislation desired by the interests is framed and brought forth. There is not enough debate of it in open house, in most cases, to disclose the real meaning of the proposals made. Clauses lie quietly unexplained and unchallenged in our statutes which contain the whole gist and purpose of the act; qualifying phrases which escape the public attention, casual definitions which do not attract attention, classifications so technical as not to be generally understood, and which every one most intimately concerned is careful not to explain or expound, contain the whole purpose of the law. Only after it has been enacted and has come to adjudication in the courts is its scheme as a whole divulged. The beneficiaries are then safe behind their bulwarks.

Of course, the chief triumphs of committee work, of covert phrase and unexplained classification, are accomplished in the framing of tariffs. Ever since the passage of the outrageous Payne-Aldrich Tariff Act our people have been discovering the concealed meanings and purposes which lay hidden in it. They are discovering item by item how deeply and deliberately they were deceived and cheated. This did not happen by accident; it came about by design, by elaborated, secret design. Questions put upon the floor in the House and Senate were not frankly or truly answered, and an elaborate piece of legislation was foisted on the country which could not possibly have passed if it had been generally comprehended.

And we know, those of us who handle the machinery of politics, that the great difficulty in breaking up the control of the political boss is that he is backed by the money and the influence of these very people who are intrenched in these very schedules. The tariff could

never have been built up item by item by public discussion, and it never could have passed, if item by item it had been explained to the people of this country. It was built up by arrangement and by the subtle management of a political organization represented in the Senate of the United States by the senior Senator from Rhode Island, and in the House of Representatives by one of the Representatives from Illinois. These gentlemen did not build that tariff upon the evidence that was given before the Committee on Ways and Means as to what the manufacturer and the workingmen, the consumers and the producers, of this country want. It was not built upon what the interests of the country called for. It was built upon understandings arrived at outside of the rooms where testimony was given and debate was held.

I am not even now suggesting corrupt influence. That is not my point. Corruption is a very difficult thing to manage in its literal sense. The payment of money is very easily detected, and men of this kind who control these interests by secret arrangement would not consent to receive a dollar in money. They are following their own principles,— that is to say, the principles which they think and act upon,— and they think that they are perfectly honorable and incorruptible men; but they believe one thing that I do not believe and that it is evident the people of the country do not believe: they believe that the prosperity of the country depends upon the arrangements which certain party leaders make with certain business leaders. They believe that, but the proposition has merely to be stated to the jury to be rejected. The prosperity of this country depends upon the interests of all of us and cannot be brought about by arrangement between any groups of persons. Take any question you like out to the country,— let it be threshed out in public debate,— and you will have made these methods impossible.

This is what sometimes happens: They promise you a particular piece of legislation. As soon as the legislature meets, a bill embodying that legislation is introduced. It is referred to a committee. You never hear of it again. What happened? Nobody knows what happened.

I am not intimating that corruption creeps in; I do not know what creeps in. The point is that we not only do not know, but it is intimated, if we get inquisitive, that it is none of our business. My reply is that it *is* our business, and it is the business of every man in the State; we have a right to know all the particulars of that bill's history. There is not any legitimate privacy about matters of

government. Government must, if it is to be pure and correct in its processes, be absolutely public in everything that affects it. I cannot imagine a public man with a conscience having a secret that he would keep from the people about their own affairs.

I know how some of these gentlemen reason. They say that the influences to which they are yielding are perfectly legitimate influences, but that if they were disclosed they would not be understood. Well, I am very sorry, but nothing is legitimate that cannot be understood. If you cannot explain it properly, then there is something about it that cannot *be* explained at all. I know from the circumstances of the case, not what is happening, but that something private is happening, and that every time one of these bills gets into committee, something private stops it, and it never comes out again unless forced out by the agitation of the press or the courage and revolt of brave men in the legislature. I have known brave men of that sort. I could name some splendid examples of men who, as representatives of the people, demanded to be told by the chairman of the committee why the bill was not reported, and who, when they could not find out from him, investigated and found out for themselves and brought the bill out by threatening to tell the reason on the floor of the House.

Those are private processes. Those are processes which stand between the people and the things that are promised them, and I say that until you drive all of those things into the open, you are not connected with your Government; you are not represented; you are not participants in your Government. Such a scheme of government by private understanding deprives you of representation, deprives the people of representative institutions. It has got to be put into the heads of legislators that public business is public business. I hold the opinion that there can be no confidences as against the people with respect to their government, and that it is the duty of every public officer to explain to his fellow-citizens whenever he gets a chance,— explain exactly what is going on inside of his own office.

There is no air so wholesome as the air of utter publicity.

There are other tracts of modern life where jungles have grown up that must be cut down. Take, for example, the entirely illegitimate extensions made of the idea of private property for the benefit of modern corporations and trusts. A modern joint stock corporation cannot in any proper sense be said to base its rights and powers upon the principles of private property. Its powers are wholly derived from legislation. It possesses them for the convenience of

business at the sufferance of the public. Its stock is widely owned, passes from hand to hand, brings multitudes of men into its shifting partnerships, and connects it with the interests and the investments of whole communities. It is a segment of the public; bears no analogy to a partnership or to the processes by which private property is safeguarded and managed, and should not be suffered to afford any covert whatever to those who are managing it. Its management is of public and general concern, is in a very proper sense everybody's business. The business of many of those corporations which we call public-service corporations, and which are indispensable to our daily lives and serve us with transportation and light and water and power, — their business, for instance, is clearly public business; and, therefore, we can and must penetrate their affairs by the light of examination and discussion.

In New Jersey the people have realized this for a long time, and a year or two ago we got our ideas on the subject enacted into legislation. The corporations involved opposed the legislation with all their might. They talked about ruin,— and I really believe they did think they would be somewhat injured. But they have not been. And I hear I cannot tell you how many men in New Jersey say: "Governor, we were opposed to you; we did not believe in the things you wanted to do, but now that you have done them we take off our hats. That was the thing to do, it did not hurt us a bit; it just put us on a normal footing; it took away suspicion from our business." New Jersey, having taken the cold plunge, cries out to the rest of the states, "Come on in! The water's fine!"

So I take it to be a necessity of the hour to open up all the processes of politics and of public business,— open them wide to public view; to make them accessible to every force that moves, every opinion that prevails in the thought of the people; to give society command of its own economic life again, not by revolutionary measures, but by a steady application of the principle that the people have a right to look into such matters and to control them; to cut all privileges and patronage and private advantage and secret enjoyment out of legislation.

Wherever any public business is transacted, wherever plans affecting the public are laid, or enterprises touching the public welfare, comfort, or convenience go forward, wherever political programmes are formulated, or candidates agreed on,— over that place a voice must speak, with the divine prerogative of a people's will, the words: "Let there be light!"

WATCHING PRESIDENT WILSON AT WORK

HOW HIS VISITORS ARE HANDLED, WHO MAY SEE HIM AND WHEN, HIS METHOD AND MANNER IN INTERVIEWS — A PICTURE OF THE SWIFTLY MOVING DRAMA AT THE WHITE HOUSE WHERE A NEW PAGE OF HISTORY IS WRITTEN EVERY DAY — A COMPARISON WITH THE CONDITIONS UNDER PRESIDENTS ROOSEVELT AND TAFT

BY

WILLIAM BAYARD HALE

WOODROW WILSON is in the White House.

He is the same man as he who a few weeks ago was sitting in his rooms at the back of the New Jersey State Capitol — the same man, at the same sort of work, with the same manners and methods. He wears the same gray suit, or another off the same piece, built by the same tailor. There is a new stick-pin in his tie; he has exchanged the seal of the Union for that of his old state; but if the tie is new, it is an amazing match for the old ones. Pince-nez eyeglass, pencil and notebook, still perform their offices.

The President has already made some new acquaintances, a few thousands; but he hasn't forgotten any one the Governor ever knew. The President's secretary still calls him "Governor," and probably always will; it is a most happy and fortunate thing that Mr. Joseph P. Tumulty has come along to Washington; and he has brought his two best Trenton stenographers with him. There were three days — a Saturday afternoon, a Sunday, a Monday, and a Tuesday morning — when Mr. Wilson rested, as a private citizen, but that was not long enough to allow him to forget his old ways of work. At 9 o'clock on the morning of the fourth day he was employing them again as if there had been no interruption, though the scene was slightly altered.

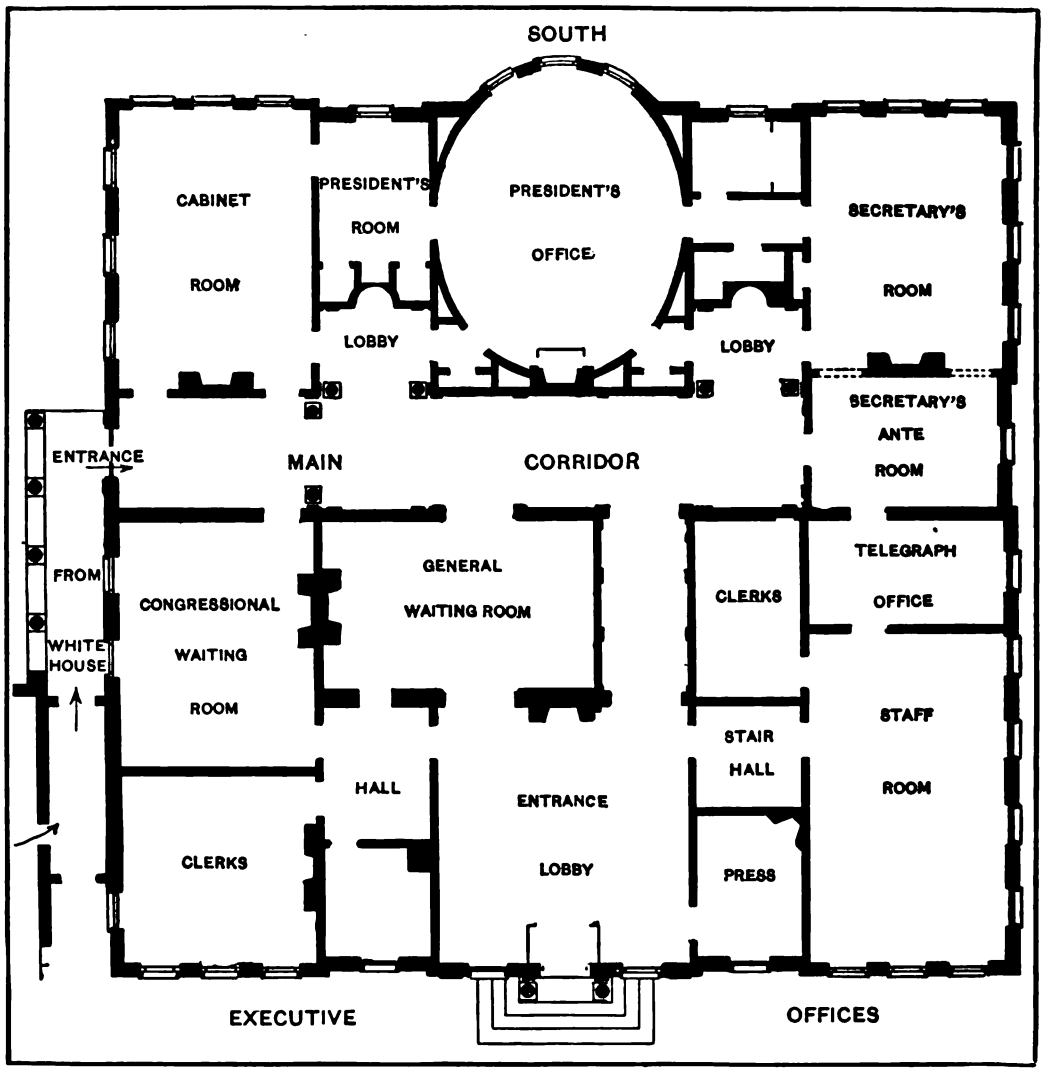
The building in which the head of a nation meets his counselors, directs his officers, puts his signature on papers of State, the building from which go forth the commands of a nation, is the one-storied staff annex to the White House which, to all official intents and purposes, is the White House. Looking at the plan of the place, you get the impression of a puzzle. These offices were devised, you suspect, to keep people away from the President — who can be reached only after threading a labyrinth of chambers and corridors. Until Mr. Wilson came down it was a difficult and hazardous feat to get into the inmost sanctum. Ordinary visitors, after passing the scrutiny of policemen in uniform outside the door and secret service men in mufti just within it, were steered into one waiting-room; persons like Senators and Representatives, into another. It was as difficult to get into the office of the Secretary to the President as it is to-day to get into the President's own room. Doorkeepers moved mysteriously about, beckoning now to this fortunate one, now to that one. And when he was at last admitted to the Presidential presence, the caller found himself only one of four or five or possibly twenty men lining the walls of an oval room, around which the President passed, listening and replying to a few rapid, low-spoken words from each — the room being, by the way, a whispering gallery in which no muttered secret was safe.

To-day, the general waiting-room is abandoned, and the congressional room is occupied by stenographers. Visitors who know the way walk unchecked

through the lobby and the corridors into the Secretary's room. Such as are unfamiliar with the lay of the land may be directed to take a seat somewhere in a lobby until their cards are carried in to Mr. Tumulty; they themselves usually follow promptly. The Secretary's room has become the waiting-room.

— but, of course, nobody does that. The doors stand open, and those who reach the desk of the Secretary hear the voices of the Chief Magistrate and his interlocutor, but everybody pauses in the anteroom and waits his special invitation — if one is forthcoming.

The Secretary's office is always a scene



PLAN OF THE EXECUTIVE OFFICES OF THE PRESIDENT

UNDER MR. WILSON "THE GENERAL WAITING-ROOM IS ABANDONED, AND THE CONGRESSIONAL ROOM IS OCCUPIED BY STENOGRAPHERS. THE SECRETARY'S ROOM HAS BECOME THE WAITING-ROOM"

To tell the truth, it is just as hard to get to the President as ever it was. Doubtless any one so minded could walk straight on through the short hall that leads to the oval room and confront the President of lively interest. Mr. Tumulty has an hour to himself in the morning; he is the earliest riser in official life Washington has ever known, and he has been over his mail by the time the first callers begin to

arrive. The President likewise has been at work with his stenographer for an hour or two before the first appointments begin, say at ten o'clock. At that time the Secretary's room is filled, and it continues to be filled until after one o'clock. An enumeration, at any moment during the morning, of the men, numbering from a dozen to twenty or thirty, to be found there waiting their turns, would be a list practically every name of which would be recognized as that of a national person. At any moment you may be speaking to a Cabinet minister, rubbing elbows with three or four Senators, stepping on the toes of a Supreme Court Justice, or knocking against an army officer of high degree.

The rule is that no visitor may see the President without an appointment previously made. A list of expected visitors, every one of whom is assigned a period of from two to twenty minutes, is prepared the first thing in the morning. The programme is carried out almost with the accuracy of a railroad timetable. By twelve o'clock the morning's work may possibly be ten minutes behind the schedule; it generally finishes pretty promptly on time; not infrequently with a few spare minutes into which to crowd an additional interview or two. There may be, there generally are, four or five visitors, probably of distinction, who have called without appointment, and who wait, hoping that an opportunity may come by chance to whisper the word they are anxious should reach the President's ear. Such opportunities rarely come. Occasionally the President steps out of his room and makes a hasty round of the outer office, but these occasions are few, and Washington officials are coming to understand that while they may see the President's Secretary at any moment, it is only by appointment previously made that they have much prospect of getting a word with Mr. Wilson himself.

That is to say, during the morning; and by universal consent morning is the time devoted to making and receiving official calls. President Roosevelt and President Taft used to keep open half an hour between noon and twelve-thirty for a sort of general reception when those who were without appointments could shake the President's hand and have his ear for a brief moment or two. Mr. Wilson has done away with this custom; in place of it, visitors without appointments are instructed to repair to the East Room of the White House at 2.30, where they pass rapidly before the President and have a brief opportunity for conversation, though, of course, not in private.

Seated in a corner are a group of Senators — Lodge, Smoot, and Stone — waiting for five minutes in which to intercede for a discharged customs official, Judge Sharretts, who was lately removed from office by President Taft and whose friends think President Wilson should reopen his case.

Over by the mantel is a nervous Congressman from Long Island. Equally nervous is a Wisconsin statesman, or statesman-to-be — Mr. "Joe" Davies, who has a handsome profile; he is talking with another, *the* other, specimen of Democratic pulchritude — Mr. A. Mitchell Palmer; the Pennsylvanian is as big and fair as the Wisconsin man is delicate and black.

Enters Joseph Gurney Cannon, the irrepressible, with his carnation in his buttonhole, radiating benevolence and biblical quotations. "I have been advised," he begins cheerfully —"Uncle Joe" is actually going home, after thirty-eight years in Congress —"I have been advised that it is time I made my peace with God. Well, I am afraid I couldn't get an audience with the Almighty, but I can at least hope to see the President. He may have some influence at the throne of grace." The ex-Speaker holds his own little court in the midst of the room, quizzed by Senators and Cabinet members.

Here is an anxious politician from Porto Rico. Here is Mr. Pleasant Stovall, an old playmate of Mr. Wilson's, whom the Senators and Congressmen of Georgia unite in recommending for the legation in Switzerland. The blind Senator from Oklahoma, Mr. Gore, has an early appointment for which he is promptly on hand.

Mr. Montague, of Virginia, has been waiting two hours, as yesterday he waited, hoping for a chance to reach the President

with the representations which the Progressive Democrats of the Old Dominion are anxious Mr. Wilson should consider before he decides between Mr. Thomas Nelson Page and Colonel Joseph E. Willard for a foreign mission. The Page-Willard fight is preliminary to one all along the line as to the distribution of patronage. Tomorrow it will be the Texas Wilson Democrats; the next day the Progressive Democrats of Alabama; then those of Maryland, of Kentucky, etc., who are urging that only those who have proven their sympathy with the Administration be put on guard. And their adversaries will be there, too, ready to empurple Mr. Tumulty's carpet with sanguinary gore.

Mr. Montague, who was Governor of Virginia once, now has become a Congressman and might easily have been chosen for the Cabinet, but his errand this time is political and it is next to impossible to get to Mr. Wilson direct with a purely political appeal. At the outset of his administration President Wilson announced, to the consternation of the pie-hunters, that he himself would not receive candidates for office or their friends. Such as came to him he referred to the heads of the several departments. He went so far as to decline to talk with Congressmen and even Senators on the subject of patronage, and, though it has proven impossible to banish all discussion of candidates from the White House, the President has shown the utmost determination to save his energies just as far as possible for the real tasks of government, leaving the filling of offices to the members of his Cabinet. Nevertheless, during the early days of his term, candidates and their friends flocked to the executive offices. They came back the second day and the third day, the spark of hope still smouldering in their breasts. They stood about the Secretary's office watching the slow hands of the clock that mark the hours eventful of so much in the Nation's contemporaneous history and yet disappointing to so many personal ambitions.

Four of them who had been standing in a corner for hours one day caught the eye of an old statesman as he came out from talk with the President; he turned and whispered to Mr. Tumulty: "They also *want to* serve who only stand and wait."

Here is a young man who spent last summer at the National Headquarters; he had his salary, to be sure, but he thinks he ought to have "recognition" besides. The gray-bearded man sitting there is Mr. Henry Gassaway Davis — once the Democratic nominee for Vice-president of the United States. It is his second day on the scene; he was once a Senator, but he forgot yesterday that a Cabinet day is scarcely one upon which a casual visitor can hope for a glimpse of the President. Mr. Marshall has been in and has gone; wise man that he is, he was bent on no other errand than to pay a moment's respects to his chief, and he was satisfied to do that through the Secretary.

Briskly moving about in animated conversation is a young man generally counted one of the new President's favorites — a pleasing enough chap with the weight of the world on his shoulders and the confidence in his ability to carry it in his eye. He has not yet given up hope of landing a $12,000 job with the aid of a father-in-law in the Senate. But he will not get in to-day.

Mr. Perry Belmont has come in to tell the President, if permitted to, that he made two speeches last night, one in Washington, the other in Baltimore, where he expatiated upon the significance of the New Freedom. Mayor Preston, of Baltimore, whose lavish (but unprofitable) hospitality delegates to the last Democratic Convention will well remember, is here to invite the President to attend a performance to be given for the benefit of the families of men killed in the dynamite explosion at Baltimore. Over there, talking with Senator Luke Lea, is Representative Sims, of Tennessee; Mr. Sims had an appointment at this hour yesterday but was a minute and a half late and missed his chance.

Mr. Underwood, chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, comes in on the dot for his appointment of half an hour. Mr. Underwood tells the President that his Committee will have a tariff bill ready to report to Congress at the extra session to begin April 7th.

The Secretary of War has twenty

minutes' conference with the President, the two discussing the future of the Philippines.

A man enters, has a moment's whispered conversation with Mr. Tumulty, who takes him to the President irrespective of what is going on in the inner room. It is regarding the case of a soldier under sentence to die to-morrow in Arizona. A reprieve has suddenly become advisable; in two minutes the reprieve is granted.

The President is ahead of his schedule; there are three or four minutes to spare before the next visitor is due, and Mr. Wilson steps into the anteroom and greets the few callers gathered there. He steps briskly; always alert and vigorous, Mr. Wilson's movements have taken on a new vivacity, a new swiftness, since he came down to Washington. He was always a fast walker, for instance, but when he is seen on the streets here he is almost racing along. He moves about the executive offices with as rapid a pace as Roosevelt ever used, and he covers the distance between his office and the White House in breathless time. The fact is the President lives in constant dread of the office-seeker, who lies in wait at every door, in every passageway, along every path, by which he hopes the President may pass.

There is a general hush as the President enters the Secretary's room. Everybody is instantly on his feet. Very rapidly Mr. Wilson passes from man to man, usually with nothing more than a smile of greeting and a handshake; here and there, a low petition is spoken; now and again a paper comes out of a pocket. It is all over in a moment, however, and the dark designs of a dozen aspirants have been frustrated. They have "paid their respects," the errand on which they ostensibly came, and they have not preferred the requests which they expected casually to mention. When Theodore Roosevelt used to come prancing out into the waiting-room, the air was suddenly filled with the sputter and crackle of words discharged like rifle shots. When Taft came out, the room was suddenly one broad smile. He made the rounds, pretended to listen, cracked a little joke here and there, and disappeared in a general gasp of merriment. Woodrow Wilson can laugh as heartily as any one, but when about this business of the Presidency he doesn't; the benignancy of his nature shines through a face usually serious and very often overcast with deepest gravity.

Very swiftly, the room fills up again. In comes Senator Ransdell, of Louisiana, and Colonel Robert Ewing of that state. The sugar schedule requires much looking after. The editor of an Atlanta newspaper is on time for his appointment. This newcomer, pulling at a piratical moustache greatly at odds with his cherubic face, is Delaware's new Senator, Willard Saulsbury.

But now approaches the sensation of the morning, in the person of William Jennings Bryan. He has just passed through the salvos of the camera batteries at the entrance, his celebrated grin outdoing the best performance of the Cheshire cat; Mr. Bryan seems a very happy man and is winning new friends every minute, moving, as he does, surrounded by a magnetic field. It is five minutes before the President learns of his chief Minister's arrival; then the two go into the little room for a half hour of intimate talk.

Mr. McAdoo has a way of slipping in by the other entrance. To-day he brings with him George Foster Peabody — one man who, in spite of his reputed Democracy, is trying to keep out of office.

News has just been handed in from the telegraph room that the New Hampshire legislature deadlock is broken, and Hollis, the Democrat, is elected United States Senator. "Good!" cries the President, for a moment forgetting some serious business in hand, and "Good!" echo twenty lusty throats.

Just as the Gridiron Club delegation comes in — six of the best-looking, at all events of the best-fed, members of that famous association of writers and fun-makers. They have come armed to the teeth with six unanswerable speeches. Unanswerable and unanswered — because never made. The President capitulated on sight. He will appear at the next Gridiron dinner. The interview, scheduled for ten minutes, lasted fifty seconds.

The wife of a Princeton professor has waited till half-past one to exchange a word with Mr. Wilson. The opportunity comes at last.

So the procession comes, pauses, and passes. You wonder what possible impression its members can hope to make upon the wearied retina, the tired tympanum, of the man in the oval room.

The case is not what one would expect. The President's mind and nerves have much the quality of youth. They are singularly fresh and tenacious; they function like a boy's both in receiving and recording impressions. He hears and sees and does not easily forget. Let us go into the oval room.

It is a cabinet, perhaps 25 by 35 feet, done in light olive green burlap with white wainscoting and doors. At one end is a fireplace with a white marble mantel, on it a French clock under a glass dome; opposite, a deep bay window. Glazed book-cases are set into the wainscoting between the doors; the floor is covered with a plain green rug of domestic manufacture. A solitary picture still hangs — or did hang, the other day—as if forgotten, on one wall: a small photograph of Theodore Roosevelt. The President sits at his desk in the bay of the window; another chair is placed at one end of the desk. At one side of this main chamber there is a smaller room in dark brown, furnished with a couch and easy chairs, and a tiny desk set into the wall; to this room on rare occasions the President may retire with a particularly favored visitor. Beyond this is the Cabinet room, a rectangular chamber none too large for its big table with ten chairs somewhat crowded around it; there is no place provided for the seat of the Secretary of Labor, and he sits doubled up with the Secretary of Commerce at the lower end. The Cabinet room is done in light brown; maps and law books line the walls, and a globe stands in the middle of the floor. The only picture is a Lincoln over the mantel. For a change of scene the President sometimes leads his visitors into the Cabinet room.

An interview with Mr. Wilson is always a delightful and satisfactory affair. Not always, of course, in its results, for the United States now has a President who can say "no" as easily as "yes," though he knows how to take the sting out of a refusal, if he wants to. But an interview is always delightful and satisfactory in that the visitor has the fullest opportunity to tell his story and make his request or his argument, assured of an attentive hearing. All visitors agree that Mr. Wilson has a peculiar faculty of putting them at their best; not a few timid, unready talkers have told me wonderingly that in his company they found their tongues unloosed and their ideas flowing rapidly into appropriate words. Appraised as austere by the public which does not know him, Mr. Wilson is in fact a man of ready and profound sympathy. All feel that instantly on coming into contact with him. He has no tricks of manner; he is innocent of any design to appear cordial; but the genuine simplicity of his look and of his words is inevitably winning. He is a shy man himself, if the truth were known, and perhaps it is the most timid of men who are the best understood by him.

Mr. Wilson is the best listener that has been in the White House for many a year. Mr. Roosevelt never listened to anybody in his life, of course; Mr. Taft could listen well, when interested, but people often suspected that Mr. Taft's mind was a-wandering, even while his face was attentive. You never have that feeling with Mr. Wilson. It is apparent from the first word that he is closely following you; as a rule he is silent until you have concluded; sometimes, however, his face will light up and he will nod or let a soft "yes" pass his lips. You have the feeling that his mind is ahead of you, as in fact it is, and you pass rapidly from point to point, well satisfied with your own swift eloquence. Then, instantly, you get your reply, and it is perfectly clear that Mr. Wilson has taken you all in — all you have said, some things you have left unsaid. His mind leaps to respond.

All Washington agrees that it is a simple delight to have converse with the new President. I have seen his swiftness of apprehension and his clean-cut clearness of mind displayed on hundreds of occasions in Princeton and Trenton, and it was no surprise to me to hear visitors emerge from interviews at the White House with their faces glowing with the pleasure of having transacted their business so satis-

factorily; no surprise to hear Secretaries praise, as if it were something unheard of and impossible in political life, the directness, swiftness, accuracy, and precision of the operations of the mind under whose presidency they sit around the Cabinet table.

"There was not an irrelevant word," said one visitor, coming away; "he listened like a judge, and answered instantly, speaking precisely to the subject I had raised, and not to some other subject."

More than one visitor has noticed, however, that after he has ventured warily to approach the question of patronage the President's responsiveness has suddenly flagged and, without any direct refusal to listen to a statement of the claims of the candidate, the change that has fallen over the spirit of the meeting has effectually prevented its utterance.

"I simply cannot understand," Mr. Wilson has said in my hearing, "the passion that goes into this struggle for office; I cannot understand the deep personal feeling with which the advocates of this man or that argue in season and out of season for their candidate, or the resentment with which they hear a rival mentioned.

"Of course, if I were to allow myself to listen to all this turmoil of importunate candidacies I could do nothing else. There would be nothing but the ragged shreds of a mind to give to the real business of the Nation, with which I am charged."

Yet Mr. Wilson is a man whose sympathies are so readily engaged that it is likely many a case will get past his guard, to worry and encumber him. Some of the candidates and friends of candidates who presume on that sympathy, though, will be wiser when they have made their attempt. Mr. Wilson is a gentleman and a scholar, but he is — I speak whereof I do know and testify what I have seen — capable of giving the thickest-skinned politician a colorful quarter of an hour.

In subtler ways, too, he is disconcerting, when he wants to be. The deliberation with which he adjusts his nose-glasses and studies a visitor is sometimes suggestive, and the long gold pencil and the neat little memorandum book with and in which, having carefully produced them, sometimes he maliciously sets about making very precise entries — are likely to become famous engines of destruction, as the country learns about the conversations that take place in the ivory and white room.

His capacity for sustained gravity, too, is a magnificent weapon.

A committee of suffragists visited him the other day, and the ladies were not unimpressed with the seriousness of their mission. When they came out, the chairman said:

"It was the most solemn meeting I ever attended. The President was cordial, but grave. We took in a copy of Mr. Wilson's book, 'The New Freedom,' and told him that by substituting 'women' for 'men' in some paragraphs it would make the best argument for woman's suffrage ever written. At that a fleeting smile stole over the Presidential visage. Then we all relapsed into solemnity. We said our pieces and we were as solemn as owls. But an owl would seem as merry as a lark by the side of the President. Where we made a mistake was in not bringing in a coffin and turning it into a funeral."

President Wilson enjoyed that interview as much as the ladies did.

The majority of the President's callers already come to discuss policies. As soon as the first stream of purely congratulatory calls had ceased, Mr. Wilson began the discussion with visitors of the great public problems of the Nation. There was a day or two when his callers seemed to think that, like his predecessors, he must be occupying himself at the beginning of his term with appointments. They found it was not so, as I have said; that already the question of patronage had been relegated to a place in the back of his mind; that he was eager to advance to serious discussions of principles. Already, before he had been in the White House a week, he was deep in the question of the attitude to be taken toward Mexico and Central America; of the proper relations of the Government to the Chinese Republic and to the policy of the "dollar diplomacy"; of the tariff, and the extremely practical problems of the preparation of a bill that would pass both Houses of Congress; of the currency, the establishment of a great

fiscal system of a new breadth and stability. Already, also, President Wilson was taking up details of the Government, and some of its specific problems. Within two weeks of his inauguration, he had announced the position of his Administration with regard to the two chief concerns of our foreign policy: our attitude toward Latin-America and toward China. The atmosphere about the White House from the start filled every visitor with the feeling that not a moment was to be lost; four years was not a day too long in which to do the great things for which the people have commissioned this Administration.

Things pass very rapidly in the oval room. A "yes," a memorandum on a pad, a touch of the bell summoning a clerk, a dozen times an hour starts the making of a bit of history. Occasionally, a secretary or a confidential stenographer comes in softly and lays before the President a paper to which a red tag is clipped — an "important and urgent" signal. All through the rest of the building the air is palpitant with excitement. The newspaper men at the door scrutinize eagerly every entrance and departure, slip in and out of Mr. Tumulty's office to "get a line on" one or another of a dozen mysterious rumors always current; the official staff, long habituated to rapid and important events, is keyed to the highest pitch in its effort to regard and execute the decisions of the man at the centre of all this activity. But there is no excitement there, no haste. If ever a man was born to govern, Mr. Wilson was; to govern confidently, though graciously. Here he is, this student of thirty cloistered years who had never been inside the White House until the day of his inauguration, to whom the City of Washington was still practically unknown — here he is, sitting in the very centre of the Nation's business and setting about the administration of its government with the grave but easy confidence, the poise and equanimity, of one born to the heritage of the chief chair of State, trained from his childhood in its expected duties, and experienced for years in their execution. There is no assumption of knowing everything; very often indeed there is a naive confession of ignorance and a request for information from the visitor. But with the utmost simplicity, there is also always an absolute and almost innocent faith in the power of a pure heart and a single eye.

The President's mornings (his mornings last until half past one) are too fully occupied by appointments to allow of his holding the public receptions in which his predecessors used to indulge at the noon hour. The custom has arisen, as I have said, of giving visitors without appointments cards admitting them to the East Room of the White House at half past two in the afternoon.

The East Room, running the depth of the mansion, with windows on three sides, with its four great fireplaces, three crystal chandeliers, its mirrors, its ornate decorations of white and gold, is very different from the rather shabby, business-like quarters in which the work of the morning is done. Under the direction of doorkeepers, visitors are lined up around the walls — for several hundred callers seek to greet the President at these levees. Promptly at 2.30 the great door swings open and, preceded by a smart aide in military uniform, the President steps rapidly out and takes a position in the centre of the floor. The President has donned a black frock coat now, and the scene is more formal.

The procession past him begins. Each person, introduced by the aide, shakes the President's hand and presents his greetings or performs his errand. At the head of the line one day is Colonel Eustis, chairman of the Inauguration Committee, supported by a few of his colleagues, who have come to present Mr. Wilson with the medal cast to commemorate the inauguration. Three Commissioners of the District of Columbia present their compliments. Next in line is a character who calls himself the "King of the Newsboys." The "King" says a formal little speech and gets a word of good-will for the juvenile disseminators of diurnal literature. Mr. Samuel Untermyer is in line; as is the retiring Solicitor-General — Mr. Bullitt has a good deal of manner and makes his little speech of good-bye as happily as if it were one of gratitude.

A little further down the line is some one

bearing a large photograph which he begs the President to accept. Others have photographs which they beg to have autographed. Here is a Congressman introducing a mother of an army officer who has fallen into difficulty. Here is a Senator with two of his important constituents who have a request to prefer. Next comes a lady, an old acquaintance, who brings her little daughter for the grace of a greeting from the President.

Perhaps one third of those in line have some particular word to say or request to make; the majority, however, have come merely to wish the President luck. And it is very evident in most cases that the wish is sincere and even profound. It is a very instructive and touching thing to watch for a few days this procession at the afternoon receptions, and to observe the attitude toward their President of the representatives of the mass of the people with nothing to ask. They come from all parts of the country: "Tennessee," "Indiana," "Kansas," "Rhode Island," succeeding one another as the introductions are made. They show no great originality in their way of expressing their feelings; commonly they utter one of the commonplace salutations of ordinary life; they wish him "luck" in one phrase or another. But whether it be that for the average citizen his presentation to the President is a rare moment, or whether it be that Woodrow Wilson has already gained an unusual place in the affections of the people, it is impossible not to see that the good wishes have an intensity of feeling behind them. I was surprised and impressed to remark how many different sorts of people — prosperous looking men, benevolent looking old ladies, brisk young chaps — said: "God bless you!" So spoke scores. I think the President must have been touched by this exercise of the priestly function of a people by the spontaneous lips of its representatives. I fancy he must find no little inspiration in this daily benediction. "Up from the common soil, up from the quiet heart of the people, rise the streams of hope and eulogy," he has said again and again.

MY WORK FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN

HOW, THOUGH LAME, AND WITHOUT MONEY OR FRIENDS, I BUILT UP A HOSPITAL-SCHOOL IN DETROIT IN WHICH HELPLESS BOYS AND GIRLS ARE TAUGHT TO BE HAPPY AND USEFUL

BY

BLANCHE VAN LEUVEN BROWNE

WHEN I look back on that day seven years ago — the day I came to Detroit with $6 in my purse and not a friend in all the big bustling city — I wonder whether it was ignorance or courage that kept me from turning back and giving up the fight. I may as well tell you from the beginning that I am a cripple; that from my childhood I have had a hopelessly twisted spine, and that only because of my knowledge gained at first hand of the impotent misery of most cripples, was I enabled to face the terrors that a city holds for one so handicapped as I am.

I was twenty-two when I left my home in Milford to go out into the gray world, and keep the vow I had made seven years before when I lay on a cot in St. Luke's Hospital in Chicago. I told the doctor then that if I lived to get well I would dedicate my frail powers to the rescue of little crippled children, who seemed to me the most neglected of all things that lived.

The strange thing now seems that, crippled as I was, grotesquely slim of purse and friendless and terror-stricken by my audacity, I was exaltedly happy.

You must know what was in my mind and heart to understand why I was spurred on by the enthusiasm of the blind devotee.

I will transcribe from an interview that a reporter — a sympathetic young woman — wrote about me in her paper not long after I came to Detroit:

> It's terrible when you consider how a crippled child is treated. If he happens to be born in a prosperous family he is petted and pampered and coddled and wrapped in cotton wool to grow up unhappy, uneducated, undisciplined — an affliction to himself and to those who love him. If he is born in a poor family his condition is pitiable beyond words — and naturally most of them are poor. Is it necessary that, because a man or a woman is crippled, selling pencils or gum or shoe-strings on the street corners should be the only occupation open to them?
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> Why shouldn't they be taught to do things? Many of them have nimble, skilful fingers, and most of them have as keen, live brains as any one. Only a place in which their bodies are treated while their hands and brains are trained can lift the tragedies from the lives of crippled children. I want a hospital-school and, with the help of God and kind human hearts, I'm going to establish one right here in Detroit.

The reporter referred to me as the crippled crusader, told of the dollar-a-week room in which she found me, and spoke in a most kindly and appreciative way of my theories and aims.

To-day my dream has been partly realized. From my room here in the hospital-school I can hear the laughter of poor little Joe, of Hazel, and Esther — all crippled, but aflame with the joy of living. And as I look back on the bitter days — the objections of fashionable neighborhoods, the annihilating self-assurance of fashionable boards of trustees, the deadening apathy of people generally, when confronted by so unimposing a person as myself — I realize that it was all worth while.

Before I came to Detroit I had written a little book out of my experiences in the hospital, and it brought me small returns. I took subscriptions for magazines, and so kept myself from being submerged. And all the while, with but one thought in mind, I never lost a chance to tell the men and women I met the story of how little crippled children suffer, not only in their bodies but in their hearts and souls, because they are regarded as deadwood, useless burdens. Some of these people sent me checks. I treasured every penny like a greedy Midas, living meagrely. When I had gathered a few months' rent I took a modest little house, furnished it scantily with a few borrowed things, and with one little crippled tot started my work. A prominent business man, to whom my ideas appealed, became treasurer, and $1,000 was paid in.

He was a much harassed man of affairs, and when he saw the little ship launched he abandoned his post. Then a board of fashionable ladies was formed. They came in fine touring cars and electric broughams. They undoubtedly were the financial and social aristocrats of the city, and I really think they meant to help me.

But the children came fast and the money came slowly, and though they were children who needed the most skilful treatment, unceasing care, and special nourishment, and though very few of those brought to me were prepared to pay a cent, I thank God that I never turned a cripple away. There were awful hours of anxiety, of course, but at the critical time relief was sure to come. A little story in one of the newspapers, for example, brought in hundreds of dollars in a few days. One of the checks for nearly $200 came from the Board of Commerce. The day the story was printed they were sitting around their big mahogany conference table discussing civic problems when the secretary read the story aloud.

"Pass the hat," said some one, and they tossed the dollars into it, and the secretary wrote a letter that made me cry for joy.

But with all the encouragement and help from without I know my work must have died but for the coming of Laura O'Neill. She was young and strong, skilful and beautiful, and full of the desire to serve. The ideas I was trying to work out in the little place where now a big family of little cripples were gathered appealed strongly to her. Indeed, she was fired with an enthusiasm no less than my own. She offered to join me in my work, although I told her of the struggle I was having and how, much as I needed just such help, I had nothing to pay her with. She insisted on coming to me,

leaving a salary of $25 a week for whatever the fates provided. It turned out to be $6 a month for a long time, which that splendid heroic soul accepted laughingly, saying she didn't know what she'd do with it. For myself there was a roof and food; but both of us were so happy that people commented upon it.

But a day dawned that had no happiness for me and much bitterness — the bitterness that comes from having your most cherished ideals utterly misunderstood. That day my fashionable board met. They came, exquisitely dressed, with their quiet, reposeful manners, the insignia of good breeding, to do their duty by the hospital-school. Their duty, as they saw it, was to put a trained, scientific worker in my place.

"You aren't a trained nurse, you know," they told me. "You haven't been educated in approved schools to carry on the work you started. You are useful and devoted and we appreciate you thoroughly, but we think the hospital-school should be managed by one who has made a scientific study of these things."

The tumult that arose in my breast I shall never be able to describe. I suffered terribly to be so misunderstood. It was out of my very own deep, sad experience that I was enabled to do for children crippled and maimed the things that were not being done and that cried to me to be done. With trembling knees and dry lips I rose to answer the fashionable board. If I could only make them realize a little of what I knew, they would understand, I thought.

"What these children need, above all things, is love and understanding." I told them. "Especially the little crippled poor yearn to be loved and cared for and nursed and at the same time to have their self-esteem increased, to be made to feel that they have useful futures. They need to be made to feel that they have a place in Society and to that end they must be taught to do useful things with which they can earn bread and happiness and self-respect in the future."

As I spoke to them I felt myself passionately moved to plead to the utmost of my powers, because I was a cripple pleading for cripples. I was protesting against the cold, statistical charity that systematizes and tabulates and classifies everything in the interests of order, and forgets that it is dealing with living, feeling, human beings. I told them that I was willing to give up my life to have my ideas for crippled children carried out, and that only as the head of the hospital-school would this be possible. They persisted, and I did a thing the boldness of which makes me shiver to think of now — I dismissed the fashionable board outright.

There were seven children in the home at the time, a big grocery bill, a month's rent due, and other expenses. I conferred with Miss O'Neill.

"There is just $10 in the treasury," she said, "and that is not a very secure backing."

"No," I answered, feeling the need to justify myself and raise her courage; "but $10 and God is a very comfortable backing, and I'm going to stake my life's hopes and ambitions on it."

I told her that I did not know much about the public, nor how they would regard me under such circumstances, but that I did know physicians and that I felt confident our children would not be left without medical attendance.

And they were not.

The board — or ex-board, to be exact — sent out notices telling of their severed connections with the hospital-school. One of these reached the city editor of one of the papers, and he sent a reporter to get the story. Of course they made a "good story" of it, coming out with a word-picture of two women fighting the world for their crippled dependents. This led to many newspaper articles about our children. Reporters came often from all the papers. They seemed to think we yielded interesting material and the publicity did us a great deal of good. One article achieved big headlines on the front page in this striking phrase:

"Little Hazel Welch dances in her shroud."

It was true, and out in Hazel's home-town of Adrian the papers copied it with cheerful comments. It brought me a check for $100 the next day. The facts

were that the doctors had given up Hazel to the extent that her mother had made her an exquisite little white dress for a shroud. Hysterical paralysis was doing its worst for the little girl. She couldn't walk a step. People were especially stirred by her plight, because of her beauty, which has the fairy-like quality of a Greuze painting. It was simply a case of building up her body and restoring her courage.

And just herein lies the kernel of my creed for cripples. Often their discouragement is akin to despair. It is one of the most appalling tragedies in the world. They feel their self-abasement directly because their families and Society generally condemn them to lives of burdensome inefficiency. And think how utterly false and unjust such a position is! Hazel is one of the many proofs we have to offer. We began, of course, by building up her body. She responded magically. She has a keen mind and a sensitive emotional nature. We restored her courage — even aroused her fighting blood. With the increase of her strength came the desire to run and romp. Little by little she gained control over the muscles of her legs. I sent her to dancing school, a dancing master having offered to take my children into his classes. I let the reporter see her dance and he described her pirouetting lightly over the floor as the sun made topaz lights in her yellow hair.

There is Marjorie, who came to us emaciated and blind from neglect. She is a dimpled cherub now, and the doctors say that she will see in time. Esther was left on our doorstep one miserable night. She weighed six pounds and looked like nothing so much as one of those unfeathered sparrows who fall from their nests in the spring time. Such havoc had malnutrition and exposure wrought that it taxed our care to the utmost to restore her. Now Botticelli would like to paint her, so soft and round are her contours. The reporters wrote about all these children, and about many others; and every story brought a check or more.

But it was hard getting along, and most of the time Miss O'Neill and I managed to forget about such things as salaries. Then many people urged me to get another board. I yielded and my heart-breaking scene with the first one was re-enacted. But if, as a board, these ladies were unwilling to hazard the untried; if, as responsible directors, they were inclined to regard me as visionary, and my Utopia for Cripples such stuff as dreams are made of, I am happy to say they held an entirely different attitude as individuals. Nearly all of them pledged themselves to stand by me through my struggles.

But with the coming of winter there were the faintest warnings of the wolf's menacing snarl. There was little money, and twenty-three crippled children in the house. It was a rented house that I had secured for $35 a month, although it was worth much more, and a well known young society woman with a big independent fortune of her own paid that rent for many months. But I was terribly harassed for funds, and fearfully I approached another rich woman I knew, for the loan of $500. I did not have to beg for it.

"My husband and I will give it to you — not as a loan, for you have worries enough without thinking of paying it back, but as a gift because we believe in you," she told me.

So there was an occasional glimpse of silver lining in the dark clouds that floated over us.

The next embarrassing incident had its humorous angle. At least the papers saw it that way if we didn't. The esthetic sensibilities of a neighborhood were bruised at the sight of physically sub-normal children playing out on the lawn or about the porch of the house where we lived. It was not an ultra-smart neighborhood, either, but one where the air was pure, and considered desirable by young parents bringing up their children. The papers poked good-natured fun at the super-esthetic feelings of these patrician neighbors of our family of little cripples and so killed, by their facetious comments, an entanglement that might otherwise have gotten into court.

Everything pointed to the need of a home of our very own. But where to get the money? It was then that I started the hospital-school magazine, not only

for the sake of revenue, but that I might, in straightforward editorials, let the public know just what we were doing and what our ideals were. The best writers in town contributed to our pages. Mr. Edgar A. Guest, the poet of the Detroit *Free Press*, whose daily column is a favorite with thousands of readers, often writes for the magazine a bit of verse about children. Now the magazine has a circulation of more than 5,000 and is a financial help directly and indirectly. My "Story of the Children's Ward," largely autobiographical, also helped out, for it was published in book form and sold pretty well. But, although I worked joyously and eagerly for my great cause, I am a cripple and weak, and the strain was terrible. But it was a joy to me to see that the hospital-school was becoming a sort of pet among those who knew most about it. Especially the younger people enjoyed helping me. The members of the Delta Alpha Delta sorority of the most fashionable girls' school in town started the practice of doing something "extra" for the children every week.

One young woman who is wonderfully skilful with her needle is teaching Zella to use her magic fingers to make exquisite embroideries. Zella will never be able to leave her rolling chair — but she is no longer wretched about that, because she knows the dignity and happiness of being really useful.

Another girl is teaching music to little Tootsie, who has a plaintive voice and a talent for mimicry. I truly believe that in a few years' time she will be able to support herself as an entertainer, after the manner of Kitty Cheatham.

One of the things upon which we spend most time and thought is trying to discover the least inkling of a talent or a particular liking for some special kind of work in our little cripples. It all works out with a success that I cannot describe or explain. I have been criticised because I repudiate routine. Well, I admit frankly that I loathe with all my heart and soul the red tape and institutionalism which cramp the individual and nip the child's exuberant happiness in the bud. I have been criticised because the visitor who comes here always finds the children in the halls, on the stairs, everywhere — getting all the joy that life offers them. I know the institutions through and through, and I know at what a sacrifice of children's happiness the great shining halls and formal, undisturbed order of the rooms are achieved. I remember with a shudder seeing the toys taken from a very sick child because visitors were expected and the battered playthings looked mussy on the spotless bed. Nor did they bother to return the toys when the fastidious visitors were gone. And it doesn't soften the ugliness of this picture to remember that the child died a few days afterward. That was an institution famed and praised for the perfect clockwork system by which it was run. But red tape and system are a monster into whose maw many a little child's happiness is fed.

I have been criticised because I will not investigate the circumstances under which children come to me. I never will. I don't believe in it. What do I care if a child has a father who drinks or gambles? A mother who is shiftless or worthless? All the more reason that I should help him; all the more reason that I should not keep him waiting in an environment that is destructive to him while I waste precious time and precious money in investigation which leads nowhere. Why need I know more when I know that the child needs help and a chance?

My one thought, my one aim, my one hope, is that children shall be given a chance for happiness, for usefulness, for self-expression. For centuries the world has looked upon cripples as deadwood. It has regarded them as essentially useless, a burden on society. That is wrong, untrue. Cripples are often full of lofty ambitions for service, and not only are they ambitious but variously gifted in ways that lie outside the beaten paths. Cultivate their gifts, give their ambitions to be useful a spur, and you have, instead of wretched idleness, joyous productiveness. This is the beginning and the end of my ideal for cripples. I believe that if once I could make the world understand what I know, there would no longer be a problem to solve.

THE COMING CITY

THE REMARKABLE WORK OF MR. JOHN NOLEN TO MAKE MORE THAN TWENTY AMERICAN MUNICIPALITIES MORE CONVENIENT AND MORE BEAUTIFUL — A RAPIDLY GROWING NATIONAL MOVEMENT TO CORRECT THE EVILS OF CARELESS GROWTH AND TO INSURE THAT THE CITIES OF THE FUTURE SHALL BE DEFINITELY PLANNED TO SERVE AND PLEASE THEIR CITIZENS

BY

JOHN S. GREGORY

IN SPITE of our bewailing it, the growth of the cities goes on. You preach the advantages of country life, but the people of the country continue flocking to town. Isn't it clear that, babble o' green fields as we will, we have got to admit that men are going to live in town? Isn't it possible that we are mistaken about it — mistaken in thinking that city life is necessarily noisy and crowded and bereft of green freshness — mistaken in thinking that we must flee to the country really to live? Isn't it, really, a faint-hearted, cowardly act to abandon the city, shirk its problems, and yield it over to the dingy, jostling, jangling conditions that prevail there — that our own neglect has permitted to prevail there?

"Besides, what right have we to come to the city to make money and then hurry to the country to spend it? Many are obliged to live in town. They cannot desert the dreary scene. Isn't it ignoble of any of us to do so?"

The speaker (let us follow the excellent fashion of the old-fashioned novel) — the speaker was Mr. John Nolen.

The "City Beautiful" idea is not a new one, even in America. It had a delightful vogue a dozen years ago. But it has been scarcely half that long since that there came the very practical realization that convenience, comfort, and economy in city life — the life that men and women apparently prefer and resolve to live — is worth planning for. And while that more substantial idea has spread fast and far and won many disciples, it has had one chief apostle — Mr. John Nolen; John Nolen, a landscape architect, with a social conscience and — vision. A patient man. A positive man — but modest, so modest that thousands who have learned his thoughts have never heard of him — as yet. A man who has once or twice demonstrated that one can very deliberately make his own life what he will, and is now demonstrating in a score of states that a city can deliberately make itself what it will.

Twelve years ago Mr. Nolen was the secretary of what called itself the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, an organization of serious-minded people of Philadelphia, with a high purpose, which never quite realized itself. Mr. Nolen was living comfortably on his moderate salary; he had married him a wife, built him a house, and begotten a son. It may have been in sticking in shrubbery about his house, or somehow or other, that he saw the possibility of a career in landscape gardening. He sold the house, carried his wife and baby to Cambridge, the three of them covenanting to live as economically as possible till the head of the family, with his last penny spent, should have learned all that Frederick Law Olmsted could teach him about landscape gardening.

The covenant was kept so faithfully, the proceeds of the sale of the house were husbanded so carefully, that after the landscape course there was a year in Germany, partly at the University of Munich, partly on travels afoot in many German cities.

Mr. Nolen prospered as a landscape artist. He "did" his share of estates

suburban land enterprises, and he
ut a delightful book, founded on
n. But there was an idea working
head all the while, an idea that no
had begun to germinate in Germany.
s that of the possibility of pleasant
instead of dreadful ones. Little
tle he worked up a practice among
commissioners and such-like city
s. And wherever Mr. Nolen was
ed to advise a commission about a
or a school-ground, that commission
itself with a full-grown scheme for a
formed city on its hands. You see, the
called for approaches, and that meant
sion of streets — why not new streets,
why not, while we are about it,
alize the city's whole street plan?
ope I suggest nothing that would
the ethics of the landscape archi-
profession, for Mr. Nolen is the
of conscience, with a soberness and
of exaggeration as notable as that
e worthy John Woolman himself,
am sure he took the utmost pains
to transcend his instructions or
rs — in so far as his sense of what
be good for the city in question
ed him. But the facts stand out
to-day this editor of Repton and
ate in landscape describes himself
is stationery as John Nolen, City
er, and that he has worked out
ications for the remaking of a
or more American cities.

no other country, except perhaps in
nd, do people look upon cities as
s to escape from as soon as possible.
don't do that in Germany, nor in
countries of Continental Europe,
n South America. When one visits
any, no matter what the season, he
't visit the country; he visits the
. For the Germans have learned
to make the cities beautiful, com-
ble, and pleasurable, as well as highly
ssful centres for trade and commerce.
have built cities in which they have
shed crowding and noise and discom-
retained the freshness of trees and
g waters, made outdoor life possible,
at the same time they have multi-
the particular exclusive advantages of
ity — the social institutions which
the country cannot have: theatres, public music, museums, well-supplied markets, noble parks, perfect pavements and roads, swift and easy and inexpensive transit.

The Germans have done no one thing for which humanity ought to be more grateful than this: they have demonstrated that the city is not necessarily ugly. "Ah!" is a rejoinder sometimes made, "German cities are old; in America our cities have grown so fast." The truth is, German cities have grown as fast as ours. Berlin is as new as Chicago. Take Düsseldorf: in 1870 it had 70,000 people; to-day it has 300,000. It has grown as fast as Pittsburgh, and it is, industrially, the Pittsburgh of Europe. Physically, it is one of the loveliest towns in which men and women have ever gathered to live. Though without the splendid and natural scenery that Pittsburgh has so sadly misused, built on a flat plain with a yellow river flowing past it, Düsseldorf, while it was gathering to itself furnaces, foundries, boiler-works, and machine factories, managed at the same time to create a city of leaf and fountain, with noble houses and ample spaces for play, and every a pleasing prospect. Look at the photographs shown on pages 96 and 97—views taken almost at random, and faithfully representing the general atmosphere of the whole city of Düsseldorf, and ask yourself why Pittsburgh is not like that.

The answer is, Mr. Nolen would tell you, because American cities are not planned. The founders of a town draw a checkerboard on the soil — totally irrespective of the natural features of the place, and the real estate gentlemen who lay out successive "additions" draw more checkerboards, and presently a city finds itself sprawling along a characterless extension of blocks; with a few streets crowded by impossible traffic and a great many more empty except for an occasional cart; with no parks or playgrounds and no longer a possibility of them except at gigantic expense; the river banks in the hands of the railroads which, like as not, have a right of way through the heart of the city; the railroad stations badly placed, the public buildings scattered —

all ugliness and discomfort, endured because better is not known — nothing to arouse or express city pride.

A city naturally tends to deteriorate. Do you remember your home town? When you last visited it, were you not oppressed by the sad changes that made it so unlike the pleasant place of your boyhood days?

The explanation of the deterioration is not hard to find. It does not lie merely negatively in the thoughtless extinction of natural beauty as trees are cut down and empty spaces built up. It lies in the positively selfish acts of hundreds of individuals moved by no sense of community. It is cheap to crowd. The slum pays. It costs to widen streets; to plant trees as old ones die. The railroad almost invariably captures the river bank or the lake-front. The gas company, the electric power company, and the trolley company are all enemies of the streets. Every rival real estate dealer struggles to get the new courthouse or the Federal building for his particular section. And there are scores of worthy citizens so eager, some for this particular "improvement," some for that, that the city is always at the end of its debt limit, and has no money with which to buy land — the first necessity of a largely planned city. ("If you write an article on city-planning," said Mr. Nolen, "don't forget to put on every page an exhortation to American cities to buy land — buy land when they are young, and buy land every chance they get. They can't go wrong. Tell them to buy land.")

The city, unawakened to its own needs and possibilities, is the prey of a thousand selfish interests, who are perfectly awake. It is only by united action and by "planning ahead" that the people of a city can successfully oppose the forces of deterioration or provide for that fuller life which growth ought to mean.

On pages 88 and 89 are shown three pictures of Harvard Square, Cambridge, as it was, is, and is to be. Fifty years ago the place was one of quiet beauty. But as the town of Cambridge grew into a city, the village green degenerated into the wretched square that to-day affronts with such peculiar insolence the expectations of every visitor to the seat of our oldest university. Only now has the consciousness of the neighborhood realized the necessity for neighborhood action. A Harvard Square Business Men's Association, making Mr. Nolen its chairman and calling in the aid of the University and the coöperation of other civic bodies, has provided a plan for the redemption of the Square. The sketch reproduced on page 88, giving Prof. E. J. A. Duquesne's idea of the reconstructed square, does not, one may hope, show what the result will look like architecturally; it cannot seriously be expected that Cambridge will turn its back on its noble "Colonial" tradition for this rhapsody of the Boulevard Raispail. But Mr. Duquesne's plan, if not his architectural treatment of it, does give Cambridge a centre which in proportions, uniformity, and relatedness, is worthy of the town and the university.

In Cambridge, a fine thing like this can still be done. The population is not more than 100,000. The like can be done in hundreds of our cities, some of them destined to grow into great centres of population. New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, have passed the point where radical improvement is possible. It is too late to rectify the criminal neglect and ignorance that forever forbid that our largest cities should ever be convenient, economical, or beautiful.

Suppose a trifling amount of thought had been given to a plan for New York City. Should we find to-day hundreds of cross streets, almost unused, and only a dozen crowded up-and-down avenues? A trifling amount of thought would have shown that the long blocks should have run north and south instead of east and west, so that the great streams of travel and not the occasional vehicles should have had the many channels through which to flow. The merest touch of reflection on the matter would have placed Central Park on one river bank or half of it on either river, and not where it would, as to-day it does, divide the city into two separated sections, to immense inconvenience and enormous expense and the confusion of the whole transit problem.

Suppose Boston had been planned.

the roadway of its main thorough-
: only forty feet wide at its most
ant section or only twenty-six feet
i some places? Would it be possible
ulate to-day that every vehicle tra-
about Boston still loses two or three
a day? Turn that into money and
hat the loss is; then reflect that
i has spent $40,000,000 connecting
videning her streets, with little
iable results, and compute by how
hundred millions more Boston would
richer to-day had her streets been
by intelligent city-planners and not
: cows.

re is a strictly financial side to all
hich it is astonishing we have not
iated. Consider, merely as an ex-
easily understood, what a mis-
fire-engine house may cost a com-
y! Every inconvenience, every
nomical arrangement, making nec-
loss of time and expenditure of
, is costly waste. When the effi-
expert takes up the case of the
e American city, the crudeness,
agances, errors, neglects, with their
ial consequences, roll into sums
tely appalling.

e appalling still, purely on the
ial side, is the waste of the wealth of
i life and energy due to bad living
ions. What is the power of Niagara
ve should conserve it, while we let
nergy of men and women waste?
i is to-day a rich and an intelligent
et more than half of her population,
in the congested sections, sleep
night under conditions below the
cible minimum agreed upon by the
ne world for the most unfortun-
n allowance of 400 cubic feet per
). Boston is thus crowded because
: not planned.

pose the city plan Sir Christopher
made for the rebuilding of London
the great fire had been followed.
l the British capital have had to
(as it has just done) 125 millions
en two streets which give unap-
ble relief to its congestion?

ld any city-planner have put a
n on San Francisco's hills, leaving
"streets" to struggle up impos-
sible grades and pursue their unyielding "straight" lines up and down all sorts of inclines without a thought of how traffic would naturally want to travel? It is usually much more sensible from the standpoint either of economy or of beauty to carry a road around a hill than over it. Would any intelligent plan have left the vast territory of Philadelphia without important diagonals, without short-cuts across those endless arrays of squares? Had there been any notion of planning the places where we assemble to live, would the broad surface of the United States be covered to-day with commonplace towns, all alike in their dreariness, because all laid out by the brilliant method of giving an office-boy a sheet of paper and a ruler, and named by equally clever resort to the alphabet and the arithmetic. "No people on earth except ourselves would any more dream of numbering their streets than of numbering their babies!" exclaims Mr. John Nolen.

What is the matter with the checker-board plan — known abroad as "the American plan?" Nearly everything is the matter with it. It isn't a plan at all; it is the lazy neglect of a plan. How can that be described as a plan which considers nothing, observes nothing, reflects on nothing, takes nothing into account, aims at nothing? There is no possible town site that does not possess some natural characteristics or distant views to be made the most of; most have elevations and depressions, not only invaluable for scenic effect, but practically determinative of the location of the various quarters of the city and of the paths of natural travel. Given a certain landscape, no matter how little broken, an intelligent student of the subject can anticipate pretty accurately in what direction the population will spread, and what will be the character of the various sections of the resulting city. Here the factories would naturally locate themselves; here naturally would the operatives live; this section is adapted to residences of the better class; here is a little stream which suggests a park strip; travel will be up and down this and this general line; retail shops would be likely to find this point the best. The public

buildings would be most conveniently placed in this central spot — and so on.

A few such points as this determined, the city composes itself. Streets, forming its skeleton, become natural, not artificial, lines — streets of different classes: some, chief arteries of travel; some, business streets; some, spacious boulevards; some, streets for residence; some, for service, etc. — streets following the land's contours, or its natural features, the main thoroughfares passing from centre to centre, residence streets retiring into quiet sections deliberately protected from general traffic. Thanks to the flexible course of the streets, there is great variety in the size, shape, and position of plots of ground; on this one might stand a schoolhouse; on this a church; this should be dedicated to a park, a playground, a fountain, a monument. There are none of the long, straight, endless vistas of the rectangular town; in every direction the eye meets something of interest. The community, while it has provided for its own greatest convenience and comfort, has also composed itself into a picture and saved money.

The rectangular town is inevitably inconvenient and uneconomical. It calls for uniform streets, whereas every street is a thing that demands a special character suited to its particular use. It wastes land, shockingly, and so, of course, increases the price of the lots from which it unnecessarily steals. It carries every traveler the long way round. It is inexpressibly dreary. It affords no interesting views. It provides no sites for particular purposes; there is no reason why any building should be anywhere in particular.

The checker-board plan is, of course, more a negative than a positive defect. It is a pity, though, at the best, and it has furnished the foundation for many of our most vicious city errors.

A new spirit is abroad among the cities. The swiftest mention of the communities to which Mr. Nolen has been called to survey and advise will probably surprise those not informed of the rapidity with which the idea of city planning has recently spread. These points include Scranton, Reading, Erie, Lock Haven, Milwaukee, Madison, St. Paul, Savannah, Roanoke, Va., Wilmington, Del., Montclair, N. J., Schenectady, Keokuk, Ia., and San Diego.

Mr. Nolen's plans for most of these cities extend to a complete remodelling, with special attention to the rectification, so far as possible, of the street scheme; the opening, widening, and connecting of thoroughfares; the deflecting of street-car lines where advisable; the rescue of streets and water-fronts from railroad or other invasion; the establishment of a civic centre; the creation of a park system; the destruction of slums and the opening of playgrounds; and the laying out in a scientific manner of territory on to which the city is expanding.

It is not pretended that all or perhaps any of these cities will carry out all that Mr. Nolen plans for them; but in a number of them his designs have been adopted as the official plans toward which all improvement must proceed, and in some large appropriations have been made and work begun.

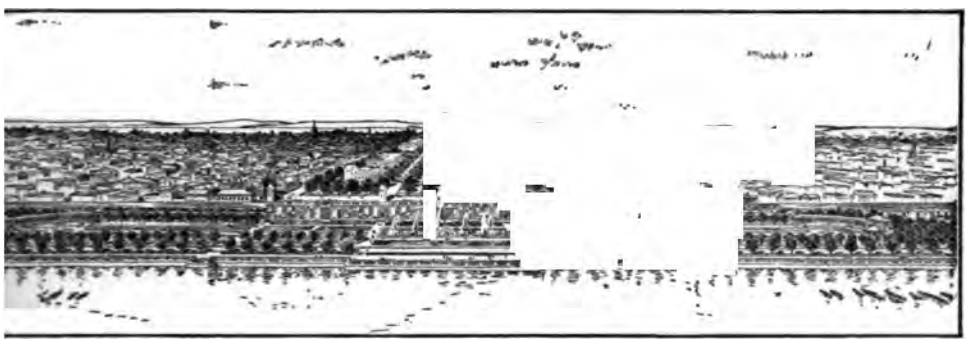
In other cities, like Chattanooga, La Crosse, Sacramento, Charlotte, N. C., and New London, Mr. Nolen's commission limited him specifically to parks. Other places for which he has made complete plans are such small communities as Wayland, Stoneham, and Cohasset, Mass., Glen Ridge, N. J., and High Shoals, N. C. — and the opportunity of catching a town young particularly delighted this designer of cities. Results in Glen Ridge were especially satisfactory; an illustration on page 93, for instance, shows the neat building erected by the community to establish the village centre at the proper point and to prevent the growing up of the shanty-town that had already begun. At Montclair, hard by, Mr. Nolen's recommendations not yet having been adopted, we see the squalid stores that Glen Ridge has got rid of.

One of Mr. Nolen's most interesting studies has been the Wisconsin capital, Madison. The natural possibilities of the place were—and still remain—very great, but they have been totally neglected. The city lies on and between pleasant hills and is surrounded by a chain of really

ful lakes. In laying out the city, ill-top was rightly appropriated for tate Capitol and another for the rsity. But that was as far as fore- ht went. The city's best street cts the two eminences, but it is nptible in width — 66 feet — and nent. The Capitol is put down on a ogether inadequate, and its surround- re not protected, the building of a lid new State House that cost ,000 accentuating the failure to le a proper setting. The lake-fronts been surrendered to private owner-

Within a few hundred yards of the ol lie low banks as marshy as they when Indians hunted in the reeds ept that now they are the dumping- d of insanitary and unsightly refuse. the possibility of a new Madison hill will stand the University, its buildings brought into somewhat greater uniformity, and provided with a large park stretching far along the shores on another lake, with its botanical garden, its forest, its aquarium and water-garden, arboretum, and summer engineering camp. Here, too, might be placed the museums that a capital ought to possess for the instruction of the people — a museum of art, of natural history, of ethnology, of traffic, of agriculture, of commerce, of invention; why not also a great theatre?

Between Capitol and University Hills stretches the Pennsylvania Avenue of this western Washington, the present State Street, widened and tree-bordered and broken by occasional squares or circuses, giving opportunity for monuments to celebrate the great men and great moments



A PLAN TO MAKE MADISON, WIS., A WORTHY CAPITAL CITY
AN EFFECTIVE ARRANGEMENT OF ITS OFFICIAL, ITS COLLEGIATE, AND ITS RESIDENTIAL QUARTERS

rung like a vision into the minds itizens and of many lovers of fitness auty throughout the state of which he capital. Nowhere else has the ation of the city-planner been so s here on the hill-tops amidst the lear-watered lakes. Mr. Nolen has a city dedicated first to its function at of statehood, second to its oppor- s as a seat of learning, and third needs of a place of residence. He nceived a city of ample propor- vith the dome of the Capitol as its of attention, grouped about with uildings of state, approached from side by liberal avenues, but par- ly composed to impress the beholder mes up a Mall, 400 feet wide, lead- m the lake-front. On the other of Wisconsin's history. And throughout the city, all that informed and skilful planning can do to aid the increase of comfortable and architecturally pleasing homes on well-shaded streets will be but another function of the creators of this model city.

They have done one great deed at Madison, which makes it seem not at all improbable that they will do another. They have created there one of the most important universities in the world, a university with a new conception of the relation of learning to the state and to the life of the people. They claim to have created a new breed of barley that has paid the cost of that university many times over. Mr. Nolen conceives that the university can serve the people just as truly by improving its city life as by improving

its agriculture. He argues that there is as much necessity that a state should establish a model city as a model farm.

You may amplify that sentence eloquently, but you cannot increase its force.

The citizens of Madison have risen splendidly in response to the ideal presented them; they have done what they could to advance it, but, of course, full realization depends upon the legislature, from which great things are hoped.

A sharply contrasting instance of the community in quest of better civic life is afforded by Schenectady, a town of altogether another type, with an alto-

it took, but it cannot be made here.
city — it numbers 80,000 now
awakened to a social consciousnes
it has undertaken, among other
to make itself over physically.
called in Mr. Nolen and listened in
as he has shown it what could be
By ordinance the city has created a
ning Board; a man worth a story b
self, Mr. Charles P. Steinmetz, is its
man. In coöperation with the sta
cials, who are spending 100 million
on a barge canal, constructing at Sc
tady one of its great terminals, far-re
steps for the redemption of the ne

HARVARD SQUARE AS IT MIGHT BE

PROF. E. J. A. DUQUESNE'S IDEALIZATION OF THE HISTORIC BUSINESS SECTION OF CAMBRIDGE, SHOWING WHAT CAN BE DONE BY A UNIFIED SCHEME OF ARCHITECTURAL TREATMENT TO IMPRO UGLY TOWN CENTRE

gether different vision — in its case the simple dream of a shabby, overgrown town to make itself into a minor city in which life, especially for workers of small means, shall be worth the living. Schenectady was once quaint, in a crowded Dutch way, on its canal and its river; now it is merely uncomfortable and distressing, in parts squalid, the result of its swift and unplanned growth as a centre of industry. A study of its life and its interesting population would well pay for the space

areas near the water have been take
the plans for the opening of needed
the development of a park and play
system, of school grounds, and the
integration of the community are
prepared by Mr. Nolen.

A first step was the reclamation
of the ravines, a place of natural
degenerated into a slum. Eight h
thousand dollars were needed to
Cotton Factory Hollow, and a two
vote of the City Council was neces

e the bond issue for it. Unfor-
itely, the political opponents of the
ent city government of Schenectady,
h is Socialistic, resolved to make the
a partisan issue, and on the night of
ember 9th, last, after a dramatic
e that will be long remembered,
eeded in blocking the issue by one
— an act bitterly resented by the
le body of Schenectady's citizens.
irring narrative might be told of the
ened resolve of Schenectady to achieve
dream — as it will — but it would
nly one chapter in the narrative of the
kening of American cities to the
ssity of fuller and worthier life.
ie, a town which, but for neglect of
harbor, might have been to-day
her Buffalo; Reading and Scranton,
the problem of their beginning in-
ries and their meagre civic life; Roan-
newly conscious of its shabbiness
of its great possibilities; San Diego,
scenic possibilities of the highest, until
utterly neglected; every one of these,
its particular needs and new ambi-
s, has its own aspect of interest.
hough it is Mr. Nolen who is devoting
self more exclusively than any one
to the advocacy of the idea and to
actual work of city planning, others,
have wrought great things.
he city plan of Chicago, that design
ntic in its daring, made by Burnham

HARVARD SQUARE IN 1840

WHEN IT YET RETAINED THE NATURAL BEAUTY OF A WOODED VILLAGE

and Bennett was the subject of an article in this magazine three years ago. Cleveland has begun a great work of civic improvement with the creation of a civic centre, for which the land has been acquired, a Federal building and court-house erected, and a city hall begun.

Baltimore had for three years a city plan commission, advised by Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted and Carrére & Hastings. Hartford, the American city which first distinguished itself by the acquisition of a worthy park, was the first to provide

HARVARD SQUARE TO-DAY

WHEN IT HAS DEGENERATED (AS ALL GROWING TOWNS DEGENERATE UNLESS CONSCIOUS EFFORTS ARE DE TO PREVENT IT) INTO AN UGLY AND INCONVENIENTLY ARRANGED JUMBLE OF JARRING ARCH-CTURAL STYLES AND OF NO STYLES AT ALL

VISTA AND THOROUGHFARE TOO

EXTENDING AND WIDENING ARLINGTON STREET, IN BOSTON, TO PROVIDE A MORE DIRECT ROUTE FOR TRAFFIC AND TO CREATE A NEW BEAUTY FOR PUBLIC VIEW. EVERY VEHICLE IN BOSTON LOSES TWO OR THREE HOURS A DAY BECAUSE OF THE BAD ARRANGEMENT OF THE STREETS

itself with a city plan commission. Carrére & Hastings prepared a comprehensive scheme of improvement, of which the monumental bridge shown on the opposite page is one of the first fruits.

Seattle has a commission which with Mr. Virgil G. Bogue as its expert, has provided an elaborate city plan contemplating a civic centre, the improvement of the harbor, the creation of a park system, the opening of arterial streets, and in general provision for the city's traffic and transit. By law, the commission's plan, when accepted by the people, is to become the official plan of Seattle, and every improvement is to follow it.

Kansas City, having developed an enviable park and boulevard system at a cost of 10 millions, is moving toward other improvements according to a well considered plan.

St. Louis has created a city plan com-

MR. JOHN NOLEN (RIGHT) AT WORK ON A CITY PLAN

IN HIS OFFICE AT CAMBRIDGE, MASS., IN WHICH HE HAS DESIGNED CIVIC IMPROVEMENTS FOR MORE THAN TWENTY AMERICAN CITIES

A BEAUTIFUL APPROACH TO A CITY

THE NEW BRIDGE OVER THE CONNECTICUT RIVER AT HARTFORD, BUILT TO DIGNIFY THE ENTRANCE TO A MUNICIPALITY OF ABOUT 100,000 PEOPLE

mission. So have Newark and Jersey City. In Minneapolis, a voluntary organization is advised by Mr. E. H. Bennett; in New Haven, another is advised by Mr. Cass Gilbert and Mr. F. L. Olmsted. Messrs. Manning, Kelsey and Waugh are at work — for voluntary bodies have taken up the idea in many other

A NOBLE EXPRESSION OF CIVIC PATRIOTISM

THE NEW GROUP OF MUNICIPAL BUILDINGS AT SPRINGFIELD, MASS., WHICH THE PEOPLE BUILT LARGELY TO GIVE BEAUTIFUL FORM AND SUBSTANCE TO THEIR LOVE FOR THEIR CITY

A PLAN FOR AN APPROACH TO THE RAILROAD STATION AT SCRANTON, PA.
TYPICAL OF THE NECESSITY TO PROVIDE A SETTING AND VISTA BY WHICH THE BEAUTY OF MONUMENTAL PUBLIC BUILDINGS MAY SHOW TO ADVANTAGE

widely scattered cities — here are the names of a few: Albany, Atlantic City, Buffalo, Cedar Rapids, Cincinnati, Colorado Springs, Columbia, S. C., Columbus, Dallas, Denver, Des Moines, Detroit, Gary, Ind., Grand Rapids, Greenville, S. C., Harrisburg, Indianapolis, Jamestown, N. Y., Los Angeles, Louisville, Memphis, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Newark, New Haven, New Orleans, Oakland, Cal., Oklahoma City, Poughkeepsie, Portland, Me., Portland, Ore., Providence, Reading, Ridgefield, N. J., Salem, Mass., San Antonio, St. Joseph, Mo., St. Paul, San Francisco, Savannah, Walla Walla, and Washington, D. C.

It was the privilege of the writer of this article a few weeks ago to sit at luncheon

HOW MONTCLAIR, N. J., MIGHT UNIFY ITS CIVIC LIFE
BY AN ORDERLY AND BEAUTIFUL GROUPING OF MUNICIPAL BUILDINGS SET OFF BY OPEN SPACES AND RELIEVED BY A BACKGROUND OF TREES AND LAWNS

AS CITY MARKETS APPEAR WHICH "JUST GROW"

RAMSHACKLE STORES IN MONTCLAIR, N. J., THAT MAKE AN UGLY CORE OF A BEAUTIFUL RESIDENTIAL SUBURB BECAUSE THEY WERE NOT PLANNED

with the committee of the National Conference on City Planning, at work on the final stages of a great experimental study which it is conducting. The committee, of which Mr. Nolen is chairman, has invented a plot of land of specified topography and relation to the surrounding country, which is to receive a population of a specified number and character. All the elements of the problem are given; the cost of the land, the price of labor and of materials of all descriptions. Parks, playgrounds, social centres, streets and boulevards, with shade-trees, are required, with provision for factory sites, shops, and stores, with dwellings for tenants of all grades. Interest and overhead expenses are charged. The problem is to

AS THE MARKETS OF A SMALL CITY MAY APPEAR

WHEN THE PEOPLE, AS THE PEOPLE OF GLEN RIDGE, N. J., DETERMINED TO DO, ARE RESOLVED TO CONTROL THE PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THEIR CITY

SAN DIEGO'S CHARACTERLESS WATER-FRONT

AS IT NOW IS, A SPRAWLING AND FORMLESS CONGLOMERATION OF STRUCTURES UNRELATED IN THEIR ARRANGEMENT TO THE REST OF THE CITY AND INCONVENIENT FOR BUSINESS

create, under the given conditions, a model city that shall most comfortably and happily serve a community, and do it, if possible, with a profit on the undertaking.

The best city planners — all of them practically — are now engaged on this problem — under conditions significant of the spirit in which these men are at work. Associating themselves in little groups of two, three, or four, of a landscape artist, an architect, and perhaps an engineer, they are working out half a dozen plans — not in competition, for everybody is asked to view everybody else's work, criticise

AN AMERICAN CITY'S IDEA

WHEN SOUTH BEND, IND., RECENTLY PREPARED FOR A CIVIC CELEBRATION, IT EXPRESSED ITS IDEAL OF ERECTING OVER ITS MAIN STREET A SERIES OF SEMICIRCULAR ARCHES OF GASPIPE! A

SAN DIEGO AS IT MAY BE

ITS WHARVES AND WAREHOUSES CONVENIENTLY ARRANGED AND CONNECTED WITH THE REST OF THE CITY BY PRACTICAL ARTERIES OF TRAFFIC, AND PART OF THE WATER-FRONT RESERVED FOR THE PEOPLE

it, or avail themselves of it. It is a revelation of enthusiasm, of the utter absence of anything like jealousy, that "speaks volumes" concerning the spirit of the city-planning movement and the temper begotten in the men who have embraced it.

The time is rapidly passing when an American city can think that it is beautifying itself by sticking up a Soldier's Monument (ordered out of a catalogue) on a corner, or putting up a series of gas-pipe arches the length of its main street. The knowledge has definitely come that

OF "THE CITY BEAUTIFUL"

CIVIC ADORNMENT BY LEAVING ITS BACK LOTS AS THEY APPEAR IN THE PICTURE AT THE LEFT AND BY CONTRAST IN METHODS APPEARS IN THE PICTURES OF DÜSSELDORF ON PAGES 96 AND 97

FOUR VIEWS AT RANDOM IN

DÜSSELDORF, THE GREAT INDUSTRIAL CITY OF GERMANY, A CITY OF FACTORIES AND SMOKE

THE SCENES OF THESE PHOTOGRAPHS CORRESPOND (IN LOCATION IF NOT IN OTHER

"THE PITTSBURGH OF EUROPE"

AND RAPID GROWTH, HAS YET FOUND TIME TO BEAUTIFY EVERY PROSPECT AS IT GREW. RESPECTS) TO TYPICAL SCENES IN THE BUSINESS DISTRICT OF PITTSBURGH, PA.

HOW TREES GLORIFY A NEIGHBORHOOD

I. A STREET IN NORTH BILLERICA, MASS., BEFORE THE TREES GREW UP

the beauty of a city must be organic, in-dwelling, not applied on the outside; must lie in fitness, convenience, ease, the planned harmony of parts.

This story is endless, but this attempt at telling it must end. But not without saying, in a word, that behind the work of the band of engineer-architects who are devoting themselves to the planning of towns and cities — certainly behind Mr. Nolen's — is a deep sense of the relationship between physical order and spiritual

HOW TREES GLORIFY A NEIGHBORHOOD

II. APPROXIMATELY THE SAME VIEW OF THE SAME STREET IN NORTH BILLERICA, MASS., AS IT APPEARS TO-DAY

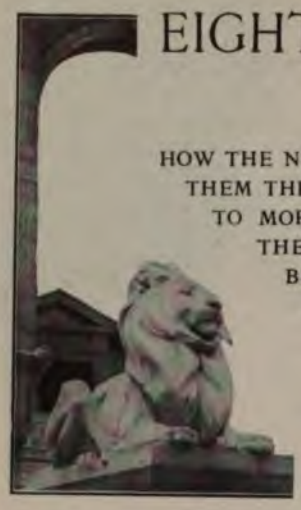
TWO VIEWS IN SCHENECTADY

AN ALLEY FULL OF WRECKAGE, A FEW RODS BELOW A SCHOOL, WHICH MIGHT EASILY BE ALTERED TO BE IN HARMONY WITH THE QUIET BEAUTY OF THE COUNTRY-LIKE LANE ABOVE

life. Much as the physical improvement of a city will directly do for the comfort of citizens, it will do more in its reactions — in its effect in inspiring a love of the city, in begetting higher standards of government. Civic pride is born in making the city one to be proud of; civic virtue is won in the very act of planning for it; the sense and spirit of community can hardly be said to exist until it begins to express itself; it is only when we plan somehow objectively to realize an ideal that the ideal comes home in earnest to our hearts. In how splendid a sense is the completion of the Municipal Group at Springfield at once the expression of, and an inspiration to, the social sense of that fine old New England community! How notable already in its reaction upon the spirit of a materialistic city has been the mere dreaming of its magnificent dream of the Chicago City Plan! Mr. Nolen says rightly: "To make a city loved, you must make it lovely and loveable."

THE SAME CANAL AT TWO NEIGHBORING PLACES

ITS UNSIGHTLY BANKS IN SCHENECTADY AND THE BANKS AS THEY MAY BE MADE TO APPEAR BY PLANNED EFFORT



EIGHT MILLION BOOKS A YEAR

HOW THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY DISTRIBUTES THEM THROUGH FORTY-ONE BRANCH LIBRARIES TO MORE THAN THREE MILLION PEOPLE— THE SERVICE IT PERFORMS FOR THE BLIND, FOR FOREIGNERS WHO CANNOT READ ENGLISH, AND FOR THE CHILDREN WHO ARE JUST LEARNING TO LOVE BOOKS

BY
SARAH COMSTOCK

HALF a dozen firemen loafed in an engine house of New York City. They hadn't smelled smoke for ten hours, and they were as restless as the horses below them, fretting for the signal. Suddenly the door was flung open, and a man with a parcel entered. For a moment there was a lazy, vacant stare at the visitor; then the men leaped to their feet.

"It's the book man!" they shouted, and they fell upon the parcel as occupants of the bear pit fall upon loaves at the feeding hour. When the visitor departed, having deposited one collection of twenty-five books and taken away another, he left six men with noses that had chafed for a sniff of smoke now buried contentedly in six volumes, Anna Katherine Green, Dickens, Seumas MacManus, Joseph Conrad, and Montague Glass being represented.

That was merely one station of the 894 visited by New York's Traveling Library in 1912. These books were merely 25 of the 84,580 volumes which last year ferretted out hundreds and hundreds of citizens who did not know how, or would

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THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY

A GLITTERING MASS OF WHITE MARBLE THAT REARS A MAJESTIC FRONT OF CLASSIC ARCHITECTURE NEARLY TWO BLOCKS LONG UPON FIFTH AVENUE AT FORTY-SECOND STREET

not take the trouble, to ferret out books for themselves. They hunted down firemen in engine houses all over town, policemen in their stations, children in parochial and industrial schools, the sick and the helpless in charitable institutions, driven girls in department stores and factories. All because they had neglected literature; but that is enough, for the modern library system. It will not be neglected.

The traveling library is only one department of a vast organization of public library departments, but it illustrates the difference between the old and the new. Time was when books were recluses. They sat in austere exclusiveness upon their shelves, and the librarian of that day was a dragon who guarded their privacy. Gradually the dragon attitude relaxed into a more apathetic mood of, "Here are the books: you, the public, may take them or leave them." It was only a few years ago that the public libraries all over the country began to wake up.

But they are awake now — aggressively awake. Here is a group of East Side Hungarians who do not read because they do not know English; at once they put in a shelf of books in the Hungarians' own language and catch them that way. There is a gang of young rowdies who look upon the library as a row of windows through which empty beer bottles are to be fired; the librarian announces an exciting sea story to be told next Friday night; and in tramps the gang to find itself spellbound by an expert story-teller.

ONE OF THE TWO HUGE READING ROOMS

IN WHICH THE PUBLIC MAY CONSULT ANY BOOK IN THE LIBRARY, DELIVERED TO THEM BY DUMBWAITERS FROM THE STORE ROOMS AND ANNOUNCED TO THEM AS READY FOR USE BY THE FLASHING OF INDEX NUMBERS UPON THE BOARD OF AN ELECTRIC ANNUNCIATOR AT THE LIBRARIANS' DESK

Thus, libraries are making themselves in every sense educational centres. Their managers aim not only to furnish books to those who desire them, but to convert. Chicago, St. Louis, Cleveland, Pittsburgh,

A LIBRARY WORKER AT A CHILDREN'S "STORY HOUR"

ONE OF THE MOST INTERESTING AND SUCCESSFUL METHODS OF EXTENDING THE INFLUENCE OF THE LIBRARY BY LEADING CHILDREN TO LOVE BOOKS

and Buffalo are among the cities which have thus distinguished themselves. New York's work is especially interesting for its cosmopolitanism and its bigness.

The New York Public Library reported early in 1913 that practically eight million books circulated for home use during 1912. In every case this was a worth-while book. Clean fiction, old and new, biography, science, philosophy, travel, history — all

A BRANCH OF THE LIBRARY IN THE EAST SIDE OF NEW YORK

ONE OF THE FORTY-ONE STATIONS FOR THE DISTRIBUTION OF BOOKS BY WHICH THE LIBRARY IS BROUGHT WITHIN THE REACH OF THREE MILLION PEOPLE

forms of books were included. Books for the blind, with raised type for eager, seeing fingers. Books in twenty-six languages, circulating almost 500,000 copies. Books carried to hospitals and asylums. Thel ame, the halt, the blind, and the stranger within our gates were just as much benefited as the American who could walk up independently to the shelves and select George Eliot's "Middlemarch" in English for himself.

they never see, are the offices where the pulse of all this out-reaching work for readers throbs.

In the three boroughs reached by the tentacles dwell 3,061,000 people. Dividing by this number the 7,969,664, we have an average of 2.6 volumes per capita. Two books and six tenths of another for every person is a pretty big average, when you realize how many illiterates and infants in arms bring down the average.

CARRYING THE CONSOLATION OF BOOKS TO ALL CLASSES

A BLIND MAN IN THE PUBLIC HOSPITAL ON BLACKWELL'S ISLAND READING ALOUD TO FELLOW PATIENTS FROM A BOOK PRINTED IN RAISED TYPE AND BROUGHT TO HIM BY THE LIBRARY

Now watch the way the various tentacles of this great system work. Stirring continually, they feel their way in every direction over the three boroughs of Manhattan, the Bronx, and Richmond. The body from which these tentacles reach forth is the wonderful new building at Forty-second Street and Fifth Avenue, down whose corridors megaphone-taught tourists ever stroll. They observe marble and bronze magnificence; but tucked away in certain corners of this building, in spots

It means that those people who read at all read a good deal.

Now the first stretch of the tentacles is in the direction of forty-one branches. A large number of reading people have never been inside one of these buildings which are scattered over the city, in the heart of its foreign quarters, sandwiched between swarming tenements, as well as among more prosperous apartment buildings. Many people buy all the books they read. But take the case of Mr. John New-

HOW THE TRAVELING LIBRARIES BRING BOOKS TO WORKERS

A SELECTION OF VOLUMES FROM THE PUBLIC LIBRARY INSTALLED IN A MACHINE SHOP FOR DISTRIBUTION

comer Irwin, for instance. He was 62, without means to buy books or periodicals, sometimes obliged to deny himself the penny expenditure for a morning paper. He had been a book-worm all his life, and would rather do without beefsteak than books. He had not lived long in New York and did not understand its library system, when chance took him into a branch.

He was a perceptive visitor, and the

ANOTHER SERVICE OF THE TRAVELING LIBRARIES

RECREATION FOR FIREMEN IN A CASE OF BOOKS THAT IS CHANGED WHEN THE MEN HAVE FINISHED ONE SUPPLY

first thing that struck him was the personal note, the home atmosphere, in contradistinction to an institutional air. (He would have found the same atmosphere in every one of the other forty buildings.) His eyes roved over the warm, light room with its substantial tables and chairs; the inexpensive but good copies of precious pictures on the walls; the growing plants in sunny windows; the decorative brasses containing autumn leaves. "It looks like a home library, not a machine to dole out volumes," he observed.

The librarian's face lighted. "Do you feel it?" she said. "That's just what we're all after!"

That particular librarian had pocketed the modest sum appropriated for decoration, had carried it to the Russian brass shops in the Ghetto, bargained shrewdly, and returned with three splendid old metal pots, originally used for serving stews. Next she had tramped the Palisades for bittersweet and red leaves to fill the pots.

So, by every available means, the branch libraries are made attractive so that the stranger once entering may enter again. The attitude of most of the librarians is that of a host toward guests. People who do not know the system sometimes say, "You can't get what you want at the public libraries." There are 343,641 persons who know better. They are the persons who own library cards and who take full advantage of their privileges.

Gradually Mr. John Newcomer Irwin became one of the regular patrons of that branch, and he can tell you what it did for him. The librarian in the first place asked him to fill out an application blank and get a sponsor to guarantee him. "But I don't know anybody!" was his first anxiety. "Anybody whose name appears in the city directory will do," he was told. He thought of the grocer; the grocer gladly signed the slip, for John Irwin always paid cash for his cereal and sugar and tea.

He found that the card permitted him to take from the library any of its fiction and non-fiction books, also current periodicals in stout binders. Except for a three-day limitation upon the use of magazines of the current month, and a week limit upon the newest novels, he had two weeks' use of every volume with the privilege of renewing for another two weeks. Other periodicals, not for home use, were spread about for readers in the cozy reading room which he soon learned to frequent. The daily papers, too, were there, so his pennies accumulated.

At first he felt the restrictions of a not very large collection of books in that branch. He had not learned the system of interbranch loans. Difficulties cleared up when he found out. He wanted "The Changing Chinese," and it was not catalogued.

"We'll get it for you," the librarian said. Immediately she investigated to find which branch had the book, and the large and expensive messenger system did the rest. Last year interbranch loans amounted to 59,697 volumes, which was 82 per cent. of the number requested. The 18 per cent. of vain requests were, for the most part, for the thrillingest tales still smelling of printer's ink, which everybody else wanted at the same moment.

"I don't know how to kill time on Sundays and holidays," John Newcomer Irwin complained one day.

"Come here," said the librarian.

"You don't mean you keep open?"

"Every Carnegie branch in the city is open for circulation full hours on all legal holidays. So is the central circulation branch. And we are of the six that open Sunday afternoons for reading, though not for circulation."

So John Irwin became one of the people who spend the idle, lonesome days in the genial company of books.

The librarians found that many a would-be reader fell away because he could not make his wants known in English. Baffled librarians, willing but impotent, stood silent before untranslatable requests from long-bearded old men of the Ghetto, from old women with shawls upon their heads. One such old woman wept when the librarians gave up in dispair, after she had pleaded for a quarter of an hour. A youngster, a Pole, called in to interpret at last, reported, "Aw, she wants a cook book so she kin make some good grub fur

her boy wot was sent up. She says she kin keep him straight if she kin give him a good time to home." And the librarian put in time after hours finding a girl who was willing to translate to the old woman from an American cook book, the only one that was available.

The number of such instances led the library authorities to give attention to the stranger tongues. Little by little foreign books were installed in the districts where they were especially needed, until now the circulation department contains, in languages other than English, 92,241 volumes with a circulation for 1912 of 499,350 in 26 foreign languages. The largest circulation was of books in German, 207,906. Other languages going past the five-thousand mark were Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Russian, Yiddish, French, and Bohemian. Besides these, small collections have been made of books in such unfamiliar tongues as Chinese, Flemish, Slovak, and modern Greek, and a collection of Ruthenian volumes is under way.

Merely possessing the books was not enough, however. The readers are of the sort who need help. Therefore it has been customary to install, in every branch in a distinctly foreign district, one librarian who can use the language of that district. For example, a speaker of Hungarian can solve many problems at Tompkins Square and a Bohemian simplifies matters at the Webster Branch.

So eager has been the response of homesick foreigners to these efforts that the library finds it cannot stop its work of extending this service. The branches are opening their assembly rooms to foreign educational societies. That "Oswiata-Bialy Orzel" meets regularly at the Tompkins Square Branch may not mean much to most readers, but it means a great deal to the earnest Poles who comprise the society. Six Hungarian societies met in three libraries last year; there was Hungarian music, discussion of "The Protection and Education of Immigrants," "The Great White Plague," and so on. Such meetings serve to draw the ties of the old land and the new very close. They also serve to prove to our aliens that the library is their friend, and thus their interest in it is aroused. The number of readers steadily increases.

The assembly rooms of twenty-two branches are used by educational and welfare societies, including such organizations as the Little Mothers' League, a debating society, boys' and girls' clubs, classes in English for foreigners, boy scouts, city history clubs, dramatic clubs — a tremendous list. The city board of education gave last year 158 of its free evening lectures in library buildings, bringing forth 22,686 people to listen. They traveled over Cuba, Mexico, and the Canadian Rockies at the tip of the lecturer's pointer. They learned "first aid to the injured." They were initiated into the musical mysteries of the *Ring* series of grand opera. And all the time that this work was going on, the library was being "discovered." By the force of habit, feet once following the path to these buildings are going that way again.

One simmering summer the libraries observed that readers grew unusually languid. They dropped in for a book, found reading rooms like Turkish baths, and wandered forth again. The librarians racked their brains. Perfectly good readers must not be lost this way. "Let's try a roof reading room," somebody suggested.

The plan was an instant success. Awnings were spread to screen off the glare from flat roofs — plenty of space left for high, clean breezes to sweep across. Tables and chairs and books were carried up, up flocked the crowd, and the roof reading room became a regularly established institution of three branches on the lower East Side. The attendance at these three roofs last summer was 48,462, which was about one half the total reading room attendance of the three buildings during that period.

Of all the picturesque phases which this zealous work takes on, not one is as picturesque as the work with children. It has been under active supervision only a half-dozen years, since Miss Annie Carroll Moore took charge of it; but it grows at a gallop. More than one third of the total circulation goes forth from the children's rooms.

' Mikey, dat place is all right! o again!"

was what a telegraph messenger id to a boy who was delivering for a Fifth Avenue florist. It was y that the children's room opened iew building. Mikey did go again. many another boy and girl. Those t have learned to snatch a few min- m their noon hour; school children is soon as school is dismissed every on.

ver the city, the children's rooms wded. In some libraries the crowd avy that it has to be handled as in blic schools — admitted in a file e o'clock. Youngsters of every lity, fat and cared-for youngsters, d under-nourished youngsters, the d and the ragged, little girls lead- ll littler ones whom they must is the terrible, beautiful panorama ' York's childhood, to watch that iting at the desk while cards are out! Proudly they show two d palms, as per requirement before g books.

e are gangs. Young toughs have many a librarian to distraction. was to be done with boys who ans and bottles in at windows, and l reading rooms? Such boys can't ht.

ı't fight 'em, utilize 'em!" was sug- "Utilize the gang!" is a watch- ow. It is being drawn in, little e, to hear the story-telling which in many branches under the pro- l supervision of Miss Anna C. Tyler. derstands boys. She knows how l them into clubs, to give them ire stories, ghost stories, stereop- alks. They like it. After all, it's etter than staying on the outside owing stones at windows!

total attendance, boys and girls, d big, from fairy story babies up ig ones who want "Captains Cour- ' and "The Taming of the Shrew," 147 at last year's story hours.

and more tightly the public working through Mr. E. W. l, tries to draw the public schools peration. Sometimes it gives an hour's lesson in the use of reference books, to a whole class; again, it invites a class to hear a story. It provides instructive and interesting exhibitions, such as the Philippine collection, a loan from the American Museum of Natural History.

So go on the various forms of luring-in to those forty-one delightful traps in which it is such a pleasure to be caught. But for those who either cannot or will not come, the traveling library is provided. From its headquarters by way of a little backdoor near Fortieth Street, where Miss A. E. Brown holds sway, 894 stations are served.

Who are the patrons? That's the interesting part of the traveling library's story. Policemen, for instance. To the police department of New York City, 3,440 volumes were supplied last year in 47 precinct stations. This work was begun in the latter part of 1911. It is not likely to lapse for want of appreciation. It was probably suggested by the fire department work, begun a year earlier. Four times during 1912 every one of 144 engine houses received a fresh collection of books — in all, 12,800 volumes being supplied. Even a fireboat came in once for its turn at literature. The chief demands are for "live stories," and for technical works on fireproof construction and the like.

The list of places where cases of books are carried by the expressman, or by one of the great motor vans, marked "New York Public Library," that constantly trundle literature over the city, is a list which includes every sort of human gathering from a Chinese mission to a biscuit factory. Scores of schools take advantage of the privilege of having collections of books delivered at their door. Several factories, such as the biscuit factory, an envelope factory, and a cloak shop, keep the books in their rest rooms for workers. Several department stores do likewise, and the saleswomen haunt the book shelf at noon.

When an embossed copy of "Little Women" found its way to a blind child who lived ten miles from a post office, it told very concretely the tale of the library's work with the blind. This is, on the

surface, a most unimportant item in human history; as unimportant as the sending of a box of embossed books in her own language to a Dutch woman in the Middle West. But both items are immensely significant. The "blind library" is one of the tentacles of the great system; it, in turn, has tentacles that reach from Massachusetts to California. With its 5,875 books and 4,197 music scores, in American Braille, New York Point, Moon type, European Braille, and several other embossings, it hunted out lonesome blind folks in almost every state, for most of the states are not so fortunate in their own collections. The circulation went up to almost 22,000 during the year, being more than 8,000 in Greater New York.

On Blackwell's Island the sightless ones among the city's poor count six days waiting for the seventh, on which the teacher will come again. She is a teacher of fingers, leading them over embossed pages until wonderful light dawns. The city library sends her with its books. By means of her teachings these dreary old people are enabled to use the embossed books which the library liberally furnishes. Nor does her work stop with the great institution. She goes to little homes as well, in tenements and in prosperous apartments, teaching, encouraging — she paid 584 visits last year, giving 287 lessons and exchanging 559 books.

Thus, through many channels which the librarians themselves establish, the books go out to solace and instruct and give pleasure to all who can be persuaded to read of 3 million people.

ADDISON BROADHURST, MASTER MERCHANT

CHAPTER V

A SHORT NOVEL OF BUSINESS SUCCESS

BY

EDWARD MOTT WOOLLEY

I WENT down into the Wall Street district one day, when my store at Junction Square was two years old, and climbed the granite steps of a bank building. There is something about a bank that makes one feel solemn — perhaps a bit gloomy. I did feel gloomy that day.

I was received in the private office of the president, Mr. Ashton Fillmore. He was a tall, portly old man, well-fed, and groomed like a Chesterfield.

"I am Addison Broadhurst, the Junction Square merchant," I said, introducing myself without preamble. I had never met Banker Fillmore.

"Be seated, sir," said he.

I sat down in a cavernous leather chair.

"Mr. Fillmore," I began, with a directness that I had acquired from repeated practice during the last two days — "Mr. Fillmore, I need money. I wish to borrow twenty thousand dollars for sixty days."

Fillmore sat tapping on the polished surface of his great mahogany desk.

"You are not the only merchant from Junction Square who has been here on the same errand, Mr. Broadhurst," he returned. "To all of them I have given the same answer. Money is not to be had at any price. In all my experience as a banker, I have never before seen a time when money was practically a retired commodity, so far as loans are concerned."

"I have a rapidly growing business," said I. "Up to the time the panic set in my sales were increasing 50 per cent. or

more a month. I have the location, the organization, and the goods the people need. I lack money to tide me over this depression. The sudden check in trade has left me with an expensive plant; the charges must be met, sir. I have a fortune in sight at Junction Square, but I haven't quite connected with it. Now if your bank will make this loan, at whatever rate of interest you please, I am willing to place my deposit account with you. It will develop into a most valuable account, I am sure."

"It is useless to talk about it," said Fillmore.

"I should like to demonstrate to you the truth of my assertions," I insisted. "I should be most pleased to go over with you my financial affairs."

"If I recollect right," he observed, quietly, "you were in business somewhere before."

"At Lost River," I admitted.

"What became of that business? I have forgotten."

"That business," said I, "is no criterion by which to judge me to-day. I was a beginner then, and I failed because I undertook a thing without knowing how. If you can disabuse your mind of any possible prejudice that may be there — wipe Lost River off the slate absolutely, as I myself have done — I can demonstrate my proposition."

"Mr. Broadhurst," he broke in, with finality, "our bank cannot lend you twenty thousand dollars, nor even a thousand dollars. Without regard to your record at Lost River, we must refuse your application. You will excuse me, please; I am much engaged."

Now this was the tenth time I had repeated scenes of this sort, one after another, in rapid succession. I relate the Fillmore conversation merely because it is typical of them all. It illustrates two things: first, the desperate financial situation that confronted not only New York but the whole country; second, the taint that is left on a man's career by one unsuccessful and poorly managed undertaking. Yet my own history should be worth while to men who have tried and failed, as I did down at Lost River. No matter how many Banker Fillmores there are in your town, it may not be necessary to throw up the sponge. If I had possessed the limited grit of some merchants I know, these Fillmores of New York would have counted me out during that panic, and properly so.

Yet here I was, apparently at the end of my string. The situation confronting me was similar, in a way, to that other situation when I came up to New York from Lost River to seek cash for my unfortunate department store down there. Yet, in reality, there could be no comparison between one of these crises and the other. On the former occasion I sought to finance a concern that failed in every way to meet banking requirements; on the latter occasion I was prepared to withstand the severe tests of the shrewdest old bankers in Manhattan.

You see, there are times even with the most ably managed business when its salvation depends, not on the banks, but on the resource and ingenuity of its owners.

When I finally abandoned the bankers, I went up to see Higgins in the office of his employers, the silk importers. Of course I did not expect to get money from him, for he had little, at best. What I wanted was merely a confidential discussion of a certain plan that had flashed across my mind the night previous. Higgins, like myself, had become a close student of business. Lost River had thoroughly sobered him and made an analytical chemist of him. Many a concern needs a chemist more than anything else — not a pharmaceutical chemist, but one who is versed in the reagents, reactions, and equations of the making and marketing of goods.

"You're on the right track, as usual," Higgins said. "There are always more ways than one to do a thing. Most men lay too much stress on cash and too little on their own inventive ability."

"Well," I returned, "you are always inspirational, anyway, Hig; that's why I like to come and talk over these matters of management with you. I know some men who throw cold water on every proposition that is broached in their presence. For example, there's Hiram Brown.

commend him to you for a lead-weighted croaker who would sink any fellow's ambitions. How he ever managed to stick in the employ of Lombard & Hapgood is more than I can imagine."

Higgins shrugged his shoulders. "I used to think Lombard had a fine organization," he returned; "but now I see things differently. By the way, I saw him yesterday — met him down near Liberty Street, coming out of a bank. He looked sick, and worried. I shouldn't be surprised if he, too, were on the still hunt for cash. I imagine these panic times have hit the old firm pretty hard."

"No doubt," said I; "how could it be otherwise, with such fellows as Hi Brown on his staff? I tell you, Hig, Lombard & Hapgood will have to remodel their whole organization policy if they hope to perpetuate themselves."

I recalled the remark Joel Langenbeck had once made to me, and I repeated it to Higgins — that the house of Lombard & Hapgood would not survive a year were Lombard himself to drop out.

I bade Higgins good-day and went over to Great Jones Street to see Langenbeck. Before taking any important step I usually consulted him. His judgment, I had found, was unerring.

"The way to beat out a panic," he said, "is to get out and hustle. It's just the time to hustle, Broadhurst — when the other fellow has gone back and laid down. I've made more money during depressions than during many a so-called prosperous spell. No, I don't say it's easy to do it; but it can be done very often. It takes science, and knowledge of the people, and that sort of thing. Above all, it takes devilish hard work and a lot of detailed thinking. Some men will tell you that it takes unlimited capital. In some kinds of business this is true, no doubt. Indeed, there are many forms of business that can't be pushed in hard times. Take a rolling-mill, for example. All the push in the world wouldn't sell steel to a railroad that was clawing off a receiver. But if a man has only one horse in his barn, of course he can't ride when the beast gets the glanders. Unless a man has capital enough to live on during a time of general disaster, he should plan to have more than one angle to his business. If he can't sell broadcloth, he should be able to turn over cheap basketcloth, for instance. If he can't sell oranges, he can at least make a drive on prunes. No, sir; a poor man should not invest all his capital in a steel plant. The rich fellows can stand a shut-down once in a while. They can take their vacations then and go to Europe."

I had expanded my selling space at Junction Square, under the pressure of the good times preceding the panic; but now I had almost double the space I needed. Space is expensive when it isn't being used profitably, but unfortunately a merchant can't chop his store in the middle, as he can his payroll.

I took a little trip up into New England and visited a lot of manufacturers. Some of them made underwear; some, household utensils like frying pans, clothes-wringers, and ash shovels; some made wearing apparel of the less expensive varieties. Every one of them, however, turned out some article of necessity, not of luxury. I skipped all the luxury plants for the time being.

At Providence I introduced myself to a big, sad-looking man named Maloney — of the Maloney Scarf & Knitting Works.

"Hang it all," said he, "the country has gone plumb to the dogs! I can't sell my stuff for love or money." Then he showed me his stock room. The goods in it were stacked up to the ceiling. A big lot of jerseys caught my notice. At that time, people were eager for these garments.

"Send the medium-priced and cheap ones down to me at New York," said I. "I'll take them off your hands if you'll give me a chance to sell them before you send down any sight drafts. I want a rock-bottom price, however — the very lowest. I'm getting ready for the biggest economy sale Junction Square ever saw. There's to be no snide about it, remember."

"Take them quick!" said he.

Similar conversations took place at most of the other plants I visited, and thus I came into possession of a huge quantity of quick-selling merchandise that filled the spaces of my store to their capacity.

was at this time, too, that I founded manufacturing end of my business. llowing out my plan to give the people best line of necessities I could handle w prices, I studied, in turn, all the les in common use, and viewed them he critical light of the customers iselves. In the course of this proced- I reached women's hats and bonnets. when I tried to find headgear that the standard of quality and inexpen- ness I had set, I found myself unable o it.

Why not make up a lot of hats your- " suggested Higgins.

Done!" I exclaimed, on the instant.

iat was the beginning of my varied ufacturing industry of to-day.

y panic hats had no silk velvet or ttes on them, I assure you, but they e an instant hit. The women had ave hats despite the hard times. And millinery establishment produced dis- ive goods that were far below the l prices. It was my aim to discover west price for which I could sell them; I reversed the policy of many mer- ts then and now. I can put my finger stablishments that are going broke use they are trying to extract the last r from a shy, backward public.

y funds did not permit me to advertise igh expensive mediums, so I fell back ectacularism. I was after the com- people, remember, and I went after hard. I hired two small brass bands, ith a drum-major; I placarded the ex- r of my store and draped the building top to bottom; I flooded my zone flaming circulars. All through, the e was *opportunity* due to the panic. de capital out of disaster.

en I conducted some rather lurid rtising at the store itself. I did many acular things that centred atten- upon me. Once get the attention of ublic, and half the battle is won.

t, I would do all these things over to-day if I found it necessary. To e bankruptcy and get on the up-grade , a merchant is justified in any ad- ing that isn't fraudulent. I have patience with those cultured gentle- who sit back and let their establish- ments die because they don't like undig- nified advertising. Neither do I. It dis- pleases me and rubs my sense of the artistic. I am an art advertiser to-day so far as possible. But I tell you I meant to pull through that panic if I had to turn art into a daub of purple ink with "Broadhurst" written across it in red. I didn't give a whoop for harmony of colors just then. I wanted cash.

One thing I did was to organize a chorus of twenty voices, made up from my store organization; and every morning, exactly when the doors were unlocked, this chorus sang — standing on a platform at the back of the store. The novelty of this was heralded all over New York.

One of the bands played at noon, and again from four to six every day. The other band paraded the streets of my zone for an hour or two in the afternoon, accom- panied by advertising announcements.

Then for the children I had a dog and cat show — and we had hard work hand- ling the crowds that came to see it. As Christmas approached, many were the holiday selling plans I put through.

Higgins came up one December day to see the fun, and he found it hard to get through the store to my office.

"I've understood from the financial columns of the newspapers that there's absolutely no money in circulation," he observed. "Yet up here in your store, Broadhurst, I see the money pouring over the counters in a thousand rivulets, like a spring freshet."

"That's it, exactly," I ventured. "No matter how hard the times may be, Hig, there are always a million springs within reach that will flow with real cash if they are skilfully tapped."

"I just saw Pillsbury across the street," said Higgins. "He was watching the crowd over here. His store was nearly empty. That's a fine store of his, too."

"Yes," I agreed; "Pillsbury & Piper have a splendid establishment. You know, they've branched out a whole lot since they started. Piper didn't like the cheap merchandise; it rubbed him the wrong way to mix with ordinary people. He thought his firm ought to go out after the swells. I used to see a whole string of

carriages lined up there, and one of the last enterprises Pillsbury put through before the panic was to hire a colored man and rig him up in crimson velvet. He wore a waistcoat of corded silk, and his knickerbockers had buckles below his knees. He made quite a hit with the people who came in their equipages. His job was to show his teeth to them, and open the doors of their carriages. But he's got a job now shoveling snow for the city. When the hard times settled down, he suffered from ennui out there on Pillsbury's sidewalk. Now I don't mean to deprecate the rich as customers, Hig. When the time comes I'm going after them myself. But until a fellow gets established, velvet flunkies should be kept off the staff."

"Why doesn't Pillsbury hire a brass band?" Higgins inquired.

"Because Piper doesn't care for any music except Wagner's — so I've heard. Besides, swell customers won't come when a brass band plays. It's only the common people who respond to 'Marching Through Georgia.' That's another advantage of having the great bulk of mankind on your list of customers."

Well, to be brief, Pillsbury & Piper hung on until after Christmas and then they gasped a few times and quit. It was just about this time that the panic showed signs of abating.

In my store, however, the panic had abated weeks earlier. In fact, I had more than twenty thousand dollars on hand; and I didn't have to use it in payment of any promissory note.

I was sitting in my office one afternoon, three years after I started my store at Junction Square, when Phelps Lombard came in. I was shocked at his wasted form.

"You have overworked tremendously," said I. "For twenty years you have carried the weight of your business practically alone. You must take a rest."

I got up and placed a chair for him.

"Broadhurst," he said, as I resumed my own seat, "you have hit the situation aptly. What you say is true: I have carried my business practically alone, and that is the sole cause of my present sickness and trouble."

"These are troublesome times," I suggested. "But the worst of the depression is over."

"The ailment of Lombard & Hapgood," he told me, "lies deeper than a panic. It lies in our own organization. So long as I had my health and was able to stay there in the store ten hours a day, things went all right. Every problem, you know, came up to me for a decision. No matter how trifling it was, Lombard had to put his O. K. on it. You know how it was when you were there."

"I remember very well, Mr. Lombard."

"Yes, the initiative of the whole force was sifted through me," he continued, "and now we have only an excuse for an organization. I haven't half a dozen men in the store who are big enough to think and act for themselves. And here I am, mortally ill! For several years I have seen this thing coming, but habit is strong and so long as I kept my health I also kept a tight rein on every little detail, from the stock-rooms down to the delivery department in the basement. Being a czar is all right so long as a man is able to wield the command and make his minions do his will — compel them by sheer force of character. But once let his subjects get the upper hand and his army filled with treason, the downfall of his domain cannot long be delayed. When my health first began to fail, I had a tolerably firm grip on things. The store was making a moderate amount of money, despite its force of mediocre thinkers. In some ways, Broadhurst, we have always had good men and women at Lombard & Hapgood's — after you came to us, especially. You helped us immensely, yet the things you did for us were largely mechanical — improvements in methods, rather than development of people. But men are hard to get, Broadhurst — good human material is amazingly rare."

"It is not especially difficult to get the raw material," said I. "To pick up the finished product, I admit, is one of the most difficult things in merchandising. I have solved the problem by developing the material myself."

"I know it," said Lombard. "I know it full well. I have watched you grow, and I could see how you did it. At first I was surprised when you went along and got bigger and bigger. I had expected to see you repeat the incidents of Lost River. But when you kept on growing, and moved across the Square to this building, and still grew and absorbed more and more of the space you had wisely provided for, I began to study you with close analysis. Then it was that I understood."

Just then Tom Pennypacker entered my private office, not knowing that Lombard was there. He paused when he saw his former employer, and the pity in his eyes was manifest.

"I did not mean to intrude," he apologized, and backed away. But I called him in again.

"Tom," said I, "Mr. Lombard has just been complimenting our organization. Tell us, please, what you consider the real secret of our success here at Junction Square."

Tom Pennypacker was now my general manager, and under him was a force of two hundred clerks. The business had expanded faster than I had dreamed, and was now a semi-department store, though it still carried cheap merchandise to a large extent. We occupied the whole of the ground floor, as well as the basement and parts of two floors above. The panic and depression had helped us, instead of retarding us, because we had carried necessities and had pushed them. And as a far-sighted adviser and keen deducer of coming markets, Tom was especially able.

"Well," said he, answering my query and addressing Lombard, "the chief secret of our success lies in the men back of it. Mr. Broadhurst, you know, is a specialist in the development of an organization. Take Bob Dawes, for instance ——"

"Another of my men!" groaned Lombard.

"Yes, he worked for you at one time, true enough. Bob is our sales manager now. Mr. Broadhurst believes that a retail business has just as much need of a sales manager as a wholesale house — and why not? And I tell you, Mr. Lombard, if ever a man knew how to sell goods, that man is Dawes. Then there's Jack Gallagher ——"

"My advertising man once!" said Lombard.

"It was Gallagher," Tom went on, "who hit on the best schemes of our hard-times campaign. He got big results. Then there's Joe Ewing ——"

"Tell Mr. Lombard about old Dan Garrett," I suggested.

"Old Dan," he explained, "was a mechanic who worked around the elevator machinery in the basement. One day he came into the store and showed me a design he had drawn for a cheap sewing-machine. He wanted to know what I thought of it. Well, now, that machine, Mr. Lombard, is one of our big sellers today. We have cut the price of the next cheapest machine more than 40 per cent., and still we are making money on it. I tell you, we want ideas that will make profits for us, and we don't care whether those ideas come from the top of our organization or the bottom."

Tom was in a hurry to get back to his office, so I excused him. For a minute Lombard was silent, and sat looking out of the window on the busy scenes of Junction Square. Three years had quite transformed the Square into a metropolitan maze. It was surrounded now by modern buildings, and a restless horde of people moved up and down and across it. Trucks, cabs, and private equipages kept two traffic policemen busy.

"Broadhurst," Lombard said, finally, with something of an effort in his voice, "Broadhurst, I've got a proposition to make to you. I'll put it in as few words as possible: I want you to consolidate your business with that of Lombard & Hapgood. I want you to move our store up here to Junction Square, after you have built suitable quarters, and take the whole combined enterprise in charge. I want you to run it—you and your organization."

I sat silent — overawed for a minute. Quickly my memory traveled back over the years to the day I came to New York the first time. For a few moments I quite lost myself in the events of my coming. It seemed scarcely more than a step into the past — when I walked up Broadway

with wondering eyes and put my foot on the lowest rung of the ladder. And now here I was at the very top, with the highest rung in my grasp.

"What part do you intend to take in the business?" I inquired.

"None!" he said, simply.

"You mean —" I began, but I lacked heart to finish.

"Yes," he said, reading my thoughts. "Broadhurst, it would be folly for me to attempt to go on, even were I to regain part of my strength. It would take my whole strength — all my old-time vigor. The task of recouping the fortunes of Lombard & Hapgood will be a stupendous one. I know few men in New York whom I should willingly ask to attempt it. You are the one man I believe capable of taking the business and carrying it through. See here, Broadhurst, I have stated the worst of the thing first. I have said that the task of redeeming the business of Lombard & Hapgood would be a stupendous one; now I say that the business, once redeemed, will put you on the road to large wealth and great influence in New York. It will be a task worthy of your mettle. The great trouble, Broadhurst, has been this: my business grew faster than I did.

"When my father established the firm, forty years ago, times were different," he went on, after resting. "There were no very large business houses then, and the problem of developing an organization was scarcely reckoned. For many years my father was able to conduct the store without much executive help, and after I finished college he found in me all the assistance he needed. After his death, I went along in the same way. Thus the store got beyond me, but still I kept on running it alone. I was a good merchant in most respects — you know that. But this question of building a business by building the men within it — well, it's a fascinating thing, Broadhurst. If only I were young and well again! But I want the business saved — for the sake of the Lombard name. I'll fix it so you can acquire full financial ownership — by degrees. Broadhurst, it is a great opportunity for you! Will you take it?"

I felt a wave of emotion coming over me — what man wouldn't to find himself suddenly lifted to such a height! And then the personal regard I felt for Lombard, and my pity for him, came near betraying my temporary weakness. I got up and stood looking out of a window upon the spirited scenes of the Square below me.

Just at that moment a carriage drove up that I knew very well indeed; it was my own. My wife stepped out of it, leading by the hand my daughter, Margaret, two years old.

You know how it is with soldiers in battle. They waver at times, and fain would turn back when they face the enemy's guns. But when the band strikes up its music, they go forward at a quick-step into the jaws of the cannon.

So the sight of my wife and child inspired me on the instant. Turning quickly to Lombard, I answered him:

"I'll do it, and I'll make the business a monument to your memory!"

A few minutes later there came a most terrific hammering on the door, as if a legion of enemies had come to attack us. Lombard and I were getting into the details of the proposed consolidation, and I saw him start up in alarm.

"It's only my girl," I said, smiling. "It's Margaret — my little one! She is the only person who would dare to batter on my door in that fashion."

Then I opened the door and admitted her, with some toy she had used to make the commotion. Behind her came her mother, with apologies for the unseemly intrusion.

"Mr. Lombard," said I, as he got to his feet, "I believe you have met Mrs. Broadhurst before."

"No," he returned; "you are mistaken. I met her a number of times as Miss Starrington, but not since."

"Well," said I, laughing, "I want to tell you a little story. It was Miss Starrington who unwittingly sent me back to New York from Europe — when I was foreign manager for Langenbeck Brothers — and thus made possible the business I now own. I had called on her in Paris and she said things, in a polite way, about men who give up the big opportunities in order

to follow the easiest road. She knew I had been planning a business. I resigned my place with Langenbeck at once, Mr. Lombard, and began to climb the more difficult path. She was the inspiration — and she shall be the inspiration of the steep and arduous ascent I am about to begin."

Lombard is gone. The years have rolled on. My markets have raised the Lombard-Broadhurst Corporation to the crest of a wave that still sweeps along in seemingly irresistible impulse. How much bigger my store is to grow, I cannot predict. New York has exceeded all estimates and the Nation is growing faster than many of us have planned for.

Of course, there are hard times even now, but I take the slumps and the setbacks with the philosophy of Epictetus. I know that so long as I follow the path I blazed years ago for the little business I founded at Junction Square, and keep off the dangerous trail I traveled at Lost River, the Lombard-Broadhurst concern will go on until I step out — and then continue the journey just so long as the men who manage it remain wise, courageous, and honest.

I think I have set down enough of my history. I have told my story in sufficient detail so that men may read whatever secrets I have had. My secrets have been those of management — of philosophy. I do not know any so-called tricks of the trade by means of which men may succeed. I aim, on the other hand, to eliminate from my store everything that even savors of trickery.

Business, I say, is a philosophy. I refer, of course, to competitive business, and not to monopolies. These latter concerns do not trouble me greatly, however much they upset some people. I have found a wide field outside them, and I believe other men in the generations to come will find opportunities everywhere — if they choose to look for them as I looked for my location at Junction Square.

I should like, if I had the time, to tell you something about the men who have grown into my business or graduated out of it. Ah, that is really the fascinating part of it! There is nothing that appeals to one like the intimate history of other men who are traveling on the same rugged path of life's journey.

But I have finished. There is just one man whom I must mention as I close — my old partner, Sanford Higgins. He is the European partner to-day of the Lombard-Broadhurst Corporation. I commend him to you as the type of business man to emulate. He was young when I first introduced him to you; he is older and wiser to-day. In all the land I know of no brighter example of the truth that a man can come up out of failure.

MAKING FOODS OF CHEMICALS

THE WORK OF PROF. EMIL ABDERHALDEN, WHO HAS MADE A LIFE-SUSTAINING PROTEIN FROM INORGANIC MATTER—THE FIRST PRACTICAL STEP TOWARD FREEING MANKIND FROM DEPENDENCE UPON VEGETABLE SOURCES OF NUTRITION

BY

LEONARD KEENE HIRSHBERG, M. D.

THE search for a food compounded wholly of chemical elements, begun about eighty years ago by the chemist Wöhler in 1828, when he made the first organic compound from the mineral carbonic acid and the alkali ammonia, has at last reached fruition in man's creation of proteins.

Proteins compose the essential parts of all living animal tissues. They are complex substances made up of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, and often sulphur, phosphorus, and iron. Sir Wil-

liam Ramsay, the noted English chemist, has not yet verified the suspicion that neon and helium are also present, but it is not at all improbable that these new, ubiquitous elements are also bound up within the protein molecule. Simple proteids are never absent from the living organism. The muscles, glands, blood serum, lymph, nerves, and tissues generally, except the tears and perspiration, have proteins as their principal constituents. Without proteins and enzymes, life could not exist.

Enzymes, or "ferments", as they are also called, are a special chemical constituent of the stomach, of the blood, of the muscles of the intestines, in each case with a specific name, such as pepsin. They do harmlessly the work inside the tissues that heat, acids, or alkalies do in the test tube. Enzymes effect changes in the tissues without injury to the living cells. They are the products of the cells and yet they have an independent individuality all their own. Without themselves changing, increasing, or decreasing, they induce great changes in the material acted upon. Thus a microscopic speck of pepsin can alter tons of meat without undergoing any manifest metamorphosis.

The distinctive peculiarity of enzymes is thus described by the London pharmacologist, Prof. W. D. Halliburton. "We may roughly compare an enzyme," he writes, "to an ill-disposed person who comes into a room full of good-natured people, and who succeeds in setting them all by the ears. He has produced a change in them without undergoing any change himself, by his mere presence. He is, moreover, able to repeat the process over and over again in fresh roomfuls indefinitely."

In the presence of water, many varieties of enzymes are decomposed, first into proteids of lower molecular composition and weight, then into near-proteids called peptones and albumoses, again into acids, and finally into compounds called chromogens, soaps, and salts.

When proteids are broken up by the enzymes excreted from bacteria — particularly the putrefying microbes — they form ammonium salts of fatty acids, hydrogen sulphide, carbonic acid gas, indol, skatol, and even carbolic acid.

Prof. Elie Metchnikoff maintains that these latter three poisonous products, ever present in the intestines, are the cause of senility and tissue degeneration. Professor Metchnikoff has isolated a germ from the intestines of dogs which, implanted in beef broth, grows a by-product that will neutralize the poisonous action of skatol, indol, and phenol (carbolic acid). This dog bacillus of Metchnikoff is now made into tablets and prescribed by the doctors as a preventive of old age.

Now this much has been known for a generation, namely, the degradation of a complex mass of meat and milk to the lowly ammonia, carbonic acid, and water. But just as it is easier to pull down step by step the Cathedral at Rheims and recognize each gargoyle, capital, and entablature; just as it is simpler to pick out the motives, rhythm, tempo, nuances, and movements of the "Symphony Pathetique" of Beethoven, than to build a cathedral or compose a masterpiece, even more difficult has it proved to be, until to-day, to devise a chemical method of rounding out a perfect food molecule.

The importance of doing this can be the better realized when it is recalled that no animal is capable of making his own food. Vegetable life alone is fitted to bring forth from nature's store a protein ready made.

Man must have his proteid food ready made for him. Animals as well as thinking beings must eat herbs, meats, eggs, berries, and fish. These are filled with the proteins that make us live, grow, and multiply. But suppose some catastrophe, some pandemic blight, should annihilate all the plant life on earth! Imagine for a moment the horrors of some animal parasite, or vegetable disease, that would kill off all the plants of the universe! Such a conception or dream has been the nightmare of scientists for centuries, for it would mean starvation unto death for every living person on earth as well as for very lower animal.

The first forward step in creating laboratory foods was made by the great

Pasteur, discoverer of bacteria as ause of disease. He mixed certain e substances, such as table salt, :ter, and phosphates, and was startled ıd that vegetable organisms would and multiply from these salty :nts. Following his lead, the plant ologists of Europe and America soon able by this method to build amounts of vegetable proteins in test tubes and flasks.

'enty years ago, a French chemist, aux by name, was impelled to seek :ans of anticipating man's eternal ıdence upon plant life. When his was finished, the result was a syn- : combination of amido or ammonia- ıcids, bodies that were links in the lex protein foods. Various other ical Vulcans forged intervening links, f the most important of which was n out by two German pharmacolo- Lilienfeld and Wolkowicz by name. the amido-acids of Grimaux they a soft, wax-like body that was mistaken for gelatin. It remained, ver, for one of the younger physio- ıl chemists of the twentieth century nclude the efforts to produce a pro- by combining chemical elements.

recent discovery has so excited the :ific and commercial world as that of. Emil Abderhalden, one of the st living physiological chemists. His atory at Halle is now the cynosure : scientific world's eyes.

Professor Abderhalden, who is still a young man, has at last furnished positive proof that man has it within his power to stand alone so far as food is concerned. True enough, the extensive commercialization of only one variety of protein will not be much of a success, but it is plainly evident that if one specific protein can be made it is a mere question of technique to make others.

Professor Abderhalden's method was simple. First he fed laboratory animals—rats, mice, prairie dogs, and cats—with organic acids (such as vinegar, asparagus acid, and amido-acids), glycerine, olive oil, cotton oil, and butter fats.

The animals contriv d to grow, wax fat, and have litters of young. This was the initial demonstration, the first on record, that small animals could live and multiply without compound organic foods such as proteins.

The second step was to subtract from the animals' food first the olive, the cotton, and the butter oils, then the various acids, and finally the glycerine. He soon discovered that the animals could not live without the amido-acids, but could live without any of the other food.

The third and last step in this marvelous discovery was taken by Professor Abderhalden when he repeated the experiments in building up, from water, salt, ammonia, and acetic acid, those same amido-acids that nourish and that increase the weight of living beings.

THE MARCH OF THE CITIES

ST. JOHN, NEW BRUNSWICK, AWAKENED AFTER 150 YEARS

FIVE years ago St. John, New Brunswick, was probably the most conservative city in all the British western possessions. When the suggestion nade that St. John should join the ssion of American cities that were ing for greater and more rapid prog- the reply was: "That will not do We are too conservative." And it all St. John believed that.

A few of its citizens, nevertheless, started a movement the success of which has surprised even the most optimistic of their number, and stands as a lesson to other backward-looking cities.

To-day, St. John is one of the biggest little cities in the world. Immigrants, believing themselves bound for the interior of Canada — Manitoba or the Saskatchewan country — are almost literally kidnapped from the ships that touch

at St. John. Convincing agents meet the ships and prove to many of the visitors that the best place for them to make their homes is "right here in New Brunswick."

Entire colonies of Danish dairymen are being brought to New Brunswick to start an industry heretofore practically neglected. These colonists are under the guidance of experts who have made dairying a business, a trade, and a profession.

For 150 years St. John had remained content in its conservatism. Such growth as it had came to it so slowly that it was unnoticed. Real estate values were unchanged decade after decade. But with the new life all this has been changed. Suburbs are springing up, values are multiplying, and great fortunes are being spent in improvements and business enterprises.

In the eastern harbor of St. John $11,500,000 is being spent for the construction of piers and dry docks. This sum is to be doubled within the next five years, and at the end of that time St. John will have one of the greatest and safest harbors in the western world.

During the present year $3,500,000 will be spent for dredging, wharf construction, and terminal facilities in the western harbor of St. John. Another $2,500,000 is being spent for warehouses and railroad terminal facilities.

Almost as though it had been accomplished over night, St. John has added 20,000 to its 40,000 population of five years ago, and the increase is continuing at a more rapid rate every month. The country back of it is filling with prosperous home builders. The pressure for for dairying and grain growing is so that the Provincial Government has compelled to take steps to open 200 of rich fruit and agricultural country until now has remained practica wilderness. Nine million dollars has appropriated by the Government, paid under contract, for 200 miles o road to be completed by November,

That the railroads may have an quate supply of fuel and not remai pendent upon foreign coal, $1,500,0c been appropriated for the openi mines in the Minto coal fields. another $1,500,000 has been approp for the development of electrical e on the Restigouche, the Nepisiguit the Miramichi rivers for transmissi St. John. At least $7,300,000 is now invested in factory buildings and p To care for transients who are vi St. John in constantly increasing bers, $1,000,000 is being invested in hotel, and $450,000 in a new drill theatre, and bank building.

For the first time, steamships le St. John for the East are carrying cargoes of New Brunswick grown and New Brunswick dairy product poultry. This indicates that this growth is logical and is likely to b manent.

St. John still speaks of itself as the of Loyalists, but many who use that couple it with the assertion that St. to-day is the most thoroughly Am of American cities.

FORWARD TO THE LAND

A WOMAN'S SUCCESS ON THE LAND

HERE is the story of a woman who gained $25,000 in profits from the soil in six years from an investment of $5,000:

Early in 1905, Mrs. Ida E. Mathis bought and took charge of 740 acres of red clay land in Calhoun County, *Alabama.* The farm cost $8.50 an acre, half cash and the balance on time per cent. The land, the houses, the fences had suffered from the "abs landlord" policy of their former ov Mrs. Mathis spent $1,200 in re She planted 10,000 fruit trees on of the cleared land, at a cost of and rented the rest of the tillable p

the farm for one third or one fourth of the crops instead of for cash, as had been the former owners' method. This percentage plan stimulated the renters to such efforts that Mrs. Mathis's share rose at once to $1,200 a year instead of $500, which the owners had formerly got. For the first two years the renters used the land between the young trees of the orchard, paying enough rent for it to cover the additional expense of hoeing. The fourth year (1908) the first crop from 2,500 peach trees brought a clear profit of $1,300, despite losses caused by rain.

In 1908, Mrs. Mathis sold one third of the farm — mostly timber land — for $20 an acre. She brought part of the rest of the farm into cultivation and succeeded in keeping her rent returns up to $1,200 a year. In the spring of 1911, she sold the remaining two thirds at $40 an acre.

From rent, crops, and sale of the land, Mrs. Mathis received altogether considerably more than $30,000. Her original investment was less than $5,000 and her total investment was about $8,000. Her net profit was about $25,000 or, distributed over the six years, about $4,000 a year. Mrs. Mathis is now successfully managing a new investment in farm lands in another part of Alabama.

Her experience illustrates the possibilities for success upon the soil that open to women who possess sound judgment, agricultural skill, executive capacity, and capital. But it illustrates, also, and even more aptly, the way in which many large farm successes in the United States have been made, viz.: by selling the farm — after it has been tilled so profitably that other people desire it — and taking as profit the increase in value over its original cost. According to the last census, the average value per acre of all farm lands in the United States increased 108 per cent. between 1900 and 1910. Individual states showed such astonishing increases as Texas, 209 per cent; Oregon, 213 per cent.; Oklahoma, 246 per cent.; South Dakota, 249 per cent.; Montana and Idaho, 276 per cent.; and Arizona, 475 per cent. Such increase in values, brought about by the pressure of population upon the available supply of land, has been typical of every region of the country as it has reached its turn to be the frontier of cheap land.

But these fluctuations cease when the land is all brought under profitable cultivation. Thus in Pennsylvania the increase in value from 1900 to 1910 was only 14 per cent. For this reason the time is rapidly approaching when the sole profit from the soil will come from skilful cultivation and economical marketing. Hence the eagerness with which farmers are studying scientific agriculture, cooperative selling, and community land credit systems, to help make the profits that soon can no longer be made merely from land speculation.

This experience points to a way to make money. But only a part of it points to the way of sound and permanent development of the country. The land that is sold this year for twice what it brought last year — such a transaction adds nothing to the wealth of the Nation. It chiefly measures the rate of diminishing opportunity of the land-hungry.

The WORLD'S WORK is especially interested in helping to serve the broader development of American agriculture that will follow the national understanding of the general principles which underlie these constructive devices to facilitate permanent improvements in farming. One of its editors is devoting a large share of his time to an exhaustive study of land credits, for in the ability to command ready money for productive farm uses lies the hope of stability and independence in a life on the land. The WORLD'S WORK will devote much space to this subject. All of its readers who are anxious to help this great movement for the upbuilding of the basic industry of the Nation can render a genuine service by placing at his disposal such facts as the rates of interest on farm loans in their neighborhoods and especially such incidents from real life as the story of men or communities that have solved, even in part, the problem of coöperative credit among farmers.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ABOUT FARM LANDS

81. — *Q.* An article in the December WORLD'S WORK states that land can be bought in northern Arkansas for $12 an acre and upward. From whom can I get information about such land?

A. The Commissioner of Immigration, Little Rock, Ark.; F. S. White, St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad, Springfield, Mo.; L. D. Bell, Missouri and North Arkansas Railroad, Eureka Springs, Ark.; and William Nicholson, Kansas City Southern Railway, Kansas City, Mo.

82. — *Q.* I want a blunt, impartial opinion of some land I have purchased in Harris County, Texas. I am told the climate and soils are good and if so I want to settle there.

A. Our chief criticism is of your inexcusable and unwise purchase of land that you had not seen. No outsider's opinion can take the place of a personal inspection. Harris County is about on the dividing line between the wooded country of southeast, and the prairie country of southwest, Texas. Although it is uniformly level, the soil conditions and natural vegetation vary greatly. Vegetables, rice, cotton, corn, small fruits, figs, Satsuma oranges, hogs, and cattle are raised in various parts of the county, but we cannot say for which your particular land may be best fitted. Drainage is often needed on the heavier soils. Rainfall is abundant and the season of probable frosts lasts only about three months. The average value of farm land is $32.07 an acre and, with the further development of agriculture, is likely to go higher.

83. — *Q.* I am a successful instructor in engineering, getting $1,700 a year with good prospects for the future. I enjoy the work and am satisfied except that I am not entirely well and would prefer outdoor work. We own 160 acres of rough timbered land in Arkansas and, if I gave up my work, could move to it with about $5,000 capital. I know a little about agriculture, but my wife was raised on a farm and we both like country life. We would not expect to farm on a large scale — just to make a living. Do you think we ought to try it?

A. Frankly, no. You are happy, satisfied, and making good headway in an honorable occupation for which you have been educated and trained. Your health problem is presumably one of habit, calling for more exercise and a better arrangement of your time. A village home with a small garden and some chickens ought partly to supply these needs and satisfy your mild desire for country life.

We have entire faith in the profits and pleasures that farming can supply, and undoubtedly people in your circumstances have taken it up and succeeded; but everyone cannot be a farmer. You can do your part of the world's work in your present capacity better than many others. Why not stick to it, make the most of your opportunities, and be glad?

84. — *Q.* What are the possibilities of apple raising and sheep raising in the Berkshire Hills of Massachusetts?

A. Natural conditions are good and ultimately these types of farming, as well as general stock raising, should prove profitable. At present, however, the development of large estates by wealthy persons has caused abnormally high prices; many of these "amateur farmers" dispose of their surplus products at prices which cannot be expected to pay, thus spoiling the market for practical farmers. The havoc wrought by uncontrolled dogs is a serious obstacle to sheep raising; and, in upland orchards, the injury done by deer occasionally assumes threatening proportions. If these difficulties can be avoided or surmounted, the problem becomes merely one of scientific, business-like farming.

85. — *Q.* I have an opportunity to buy 400 acres in Leon County, Texas, west of the Trinity River. What of climatic and agricultural conditions there?

A. Thirty-nine inches of rain annually, long, warm summers, mild winters with only occasional cold spells and north winds, and fertile, level soils (sometimes requiring drainage) all contribute to the successful raising of a variety of crops, of which cotton, corn, hay, and peanuts are at present the most important. Marketing is not so easy, as much of the country is inconveniently distant from railroads. On this account and because of its soil-building value, stock should be kept. The value of farm land is increasing, although it is still only $7.84 an acre. About half the land of the county is utilized by its 2,863 farms, of which 52 per cent. are rented. The wisdom of your prospective purchase depends upon the exact location of the land and also upon the price you must pay.

The World's Work

ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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MR. WALTER H. PAGE

FOUNDER AND FOR TWELVE YEARS EDITOR OF THE "WORLD'S WORK," WHO HAS RETIRED FROM THE MANAGEMENT OF THIS MAGAZINE TO BECOME THE AMERICAN AMBASSADOR TO GREAT BRITAIN

[See "The March of Events"]

THE
WORLD'S WORK

JUNE, 1913

VOLUME XXVI NUMBER 2

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

A WINTER of wars abroad and political upheaval at home, followed by more wars abroad and floods and tariff revision at home, contrary to pre- it brings a busy summer. In spite many disturbing occurrences and the numerous threatened disturbances, United States is enjoying a more than ge prosperity. It is exhibiting anew ndamental strength.

t there is not a buoyant mood among who direct the great enterprises of untry. The incoming of the Wilson nistration is the first step in a far fundamental change than merely hanging of the governmental ma- ry from one group of men to another. fifty years the criterion by which Inited States judged itself was busi- If a measure were good for business, s good for the country; if it were r business, it was bad for the country. change the standard by which the ry judges itself from the narrower ication of the special welfare of ess to the broad foundation of the re of the consuming man — to do without destruction and without sity requires a man of patience and quiet courage. It is our good fortune that President Wilson is such a man.

Enlightened self-interest has brought a large proportion of business to believe in this new standard; for, after all, behind every business is a man, a part of the great mass upon whose real prosperity all firm business prosperity rests.

But, however beneficial and necessary the change itself, the process is disturbing. New tariffs and new laws for business interrupt the even flow of daily transactions. The business world as a whole feels that it would be false to the past if it were not a little apprehensive of the future, and our corporate affairs will therefore be managed conservatively. And this conservatism among business men and a sober, almost solemn, feeling of responsibility that pervades the Administration at Washington augur well for a careful and considerate carrying out of the changes which the public has demanded.

In the meanwhile, the railroads, the factories, and the farms are busy, especially the farms. The unprecedented fruitfulness of the land forced a good year upon a doubting public and it now seems as if nature this year again is plentifully coming to our aid.

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VISCOUNT SUTEMI CHINDA

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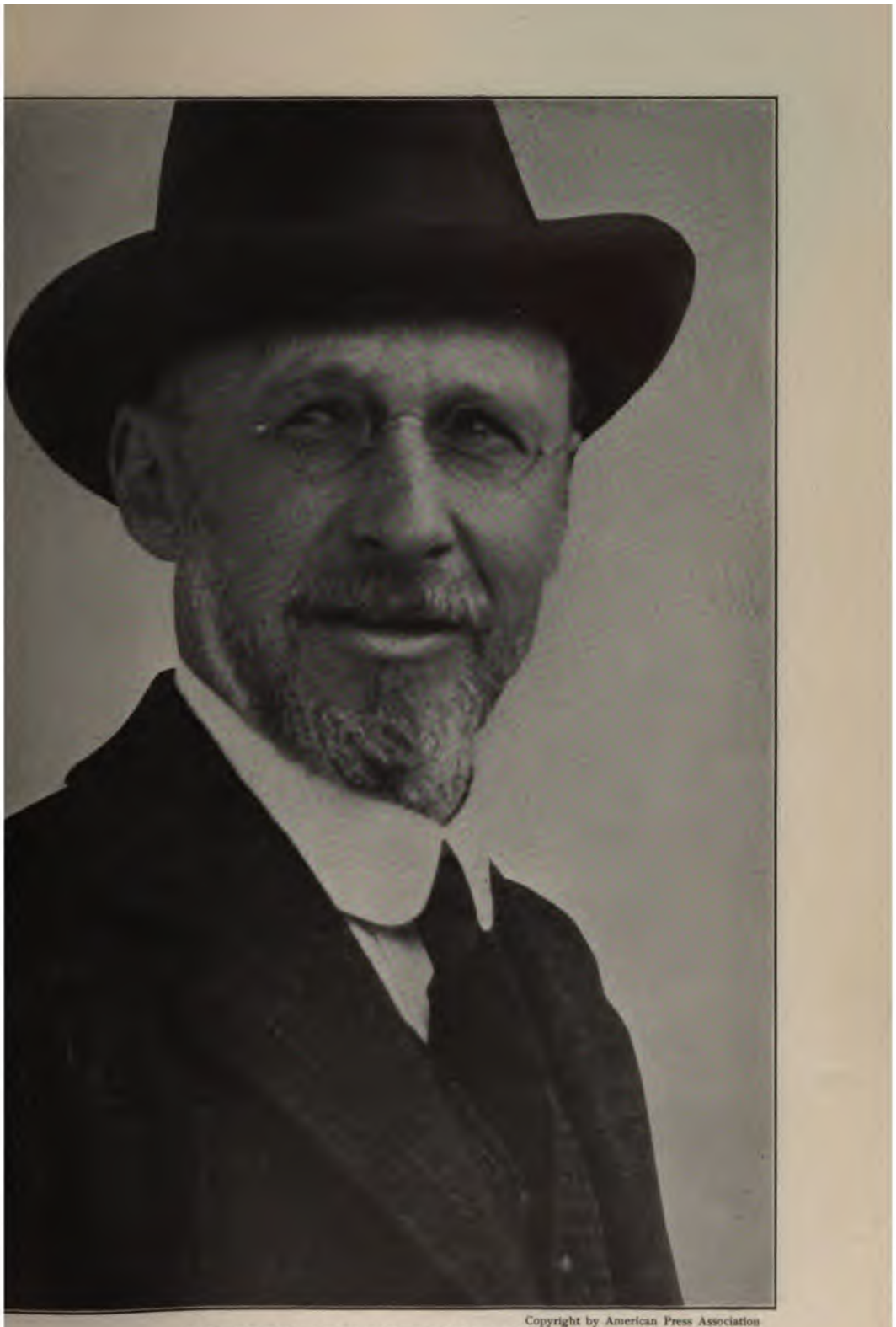
THE JAPANESE AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES, WHOSE PROTEST AGAINST THE ENACTMENT OF A STATE LAW TO PREVENT JAPANESE IN CALIFORNIA FROM OWNING OR LEASING AGRICULTURAL LANDS, BROUGHT THAT RECURRENT SITUATION AGAIN INTO FIRST PROMINENCE AS A NATIONAL PROBLEM

[See page 105]



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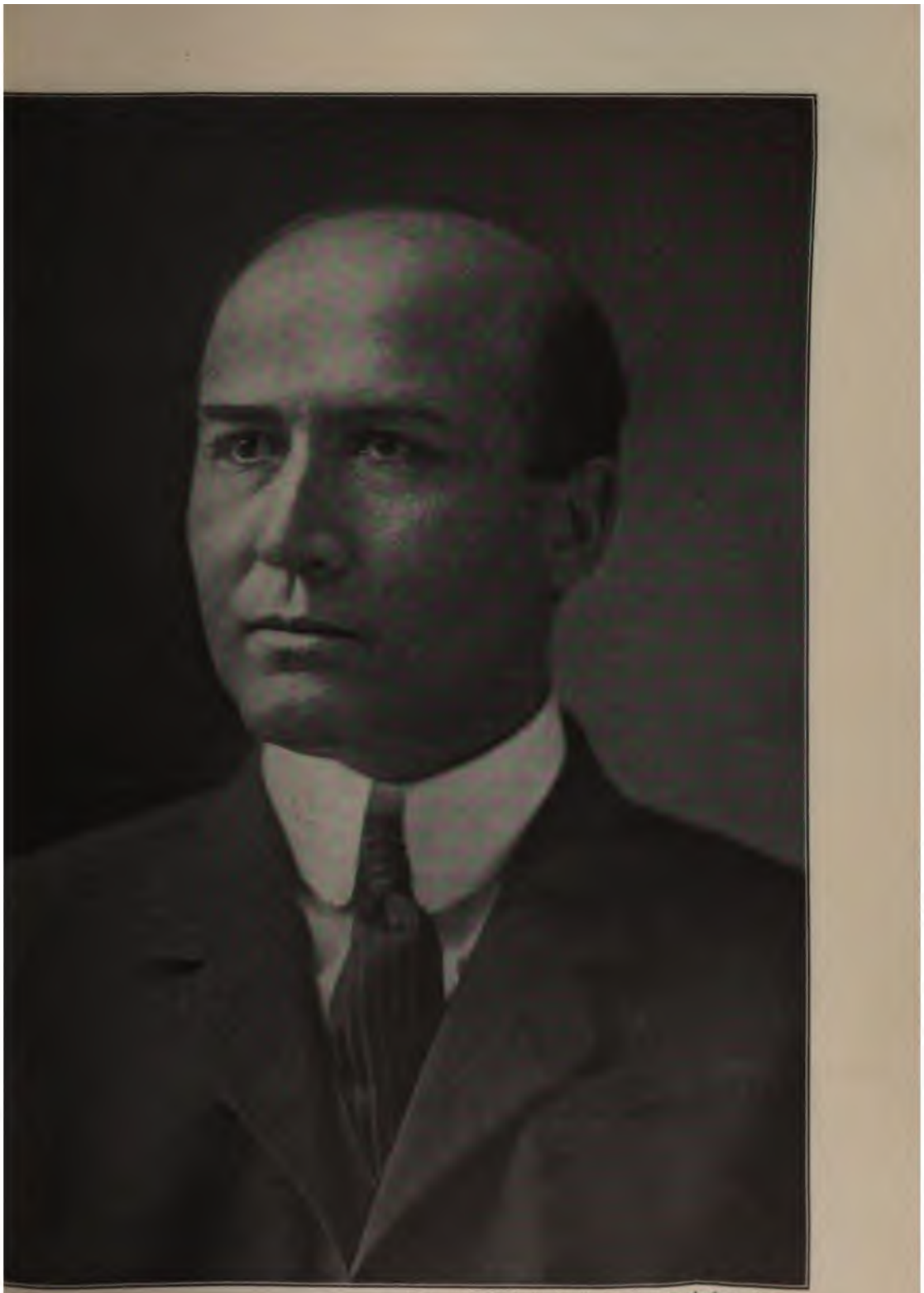
SIR CECIL ARTHUR SPRING-RICE

DISTINGUISHED DIPLOMATIST WHO HAS SUCCEEDED THE RT. HON. JAMES BRYCE AS THE BRITISH AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES

By courtesy of the Chautauqua Press

DR. GEORGE E. VINCENT

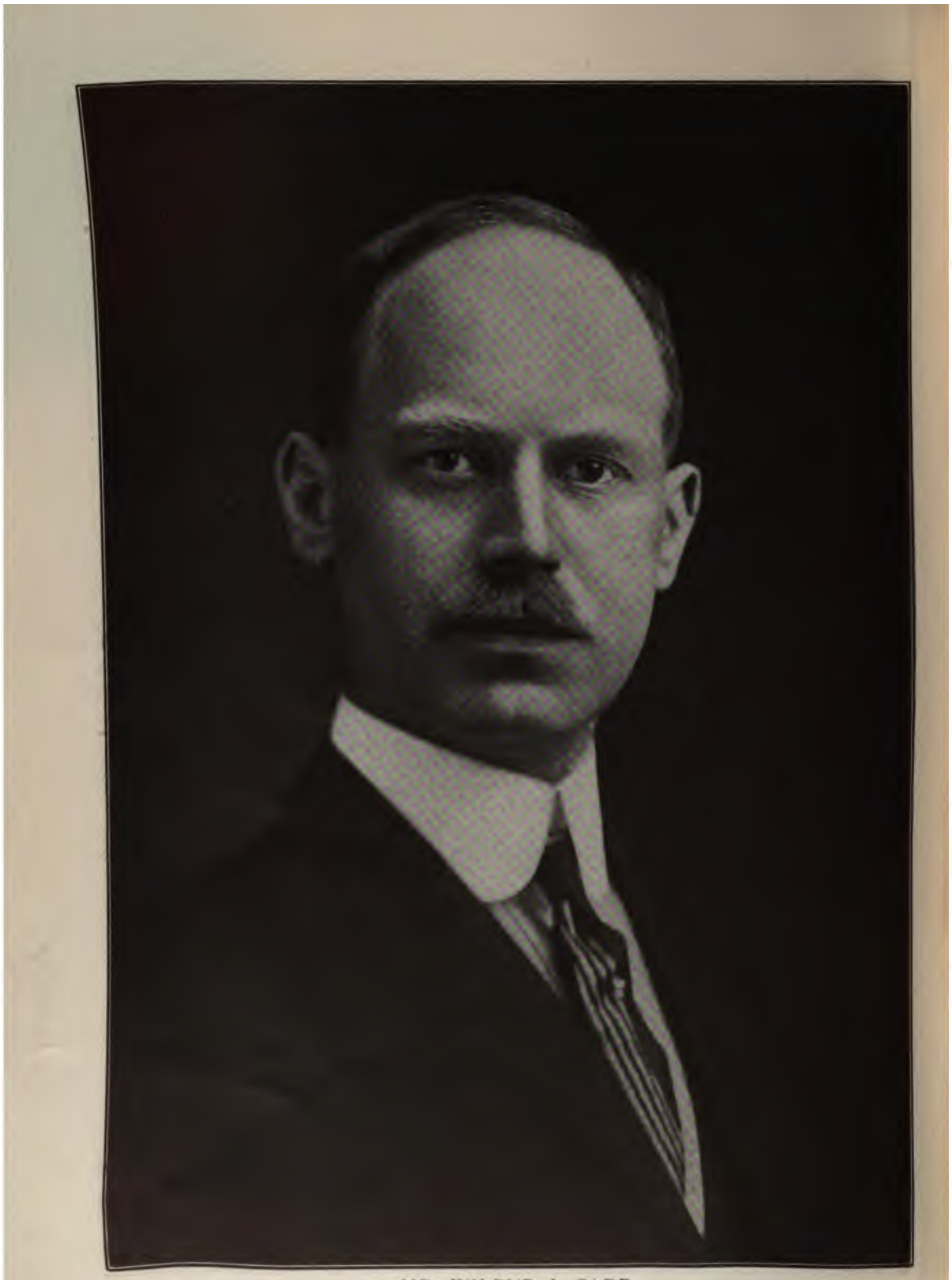
EORGANIZED THE TEACHING FORCE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, IN BOTH
NEL AND METHODS, DURING THE TWO YEARS SINCE HE BECAME ITS PRESIDENT



Photographed for the World's Work by J. E. Purdy & Co. Boston

PROF. T. N. CARVER

ONE OF THE FOREMOST ECONOMISTS OF OUR TIME, WHO HAS TAKEN CHARGE OF THE GREAT WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE TO BETTER THE METHODS OF MARKETING THE FARM PRODUCTS OF THE COUNTRY



MR. WILBUR J. CARR

UNDER WHOSE ADMINISTRATION AS DIRECTOR, THE CONSULAR SERVICE OF THE UNITED STATES HAS MADE A NOTEWORTHY ADVANCE IN THE QUALITY OF ITS PERSONNEL AND IN THE EFFICIENCY OF ITS WORK TO PROMOTE AMERICAN TRADE ABROAD

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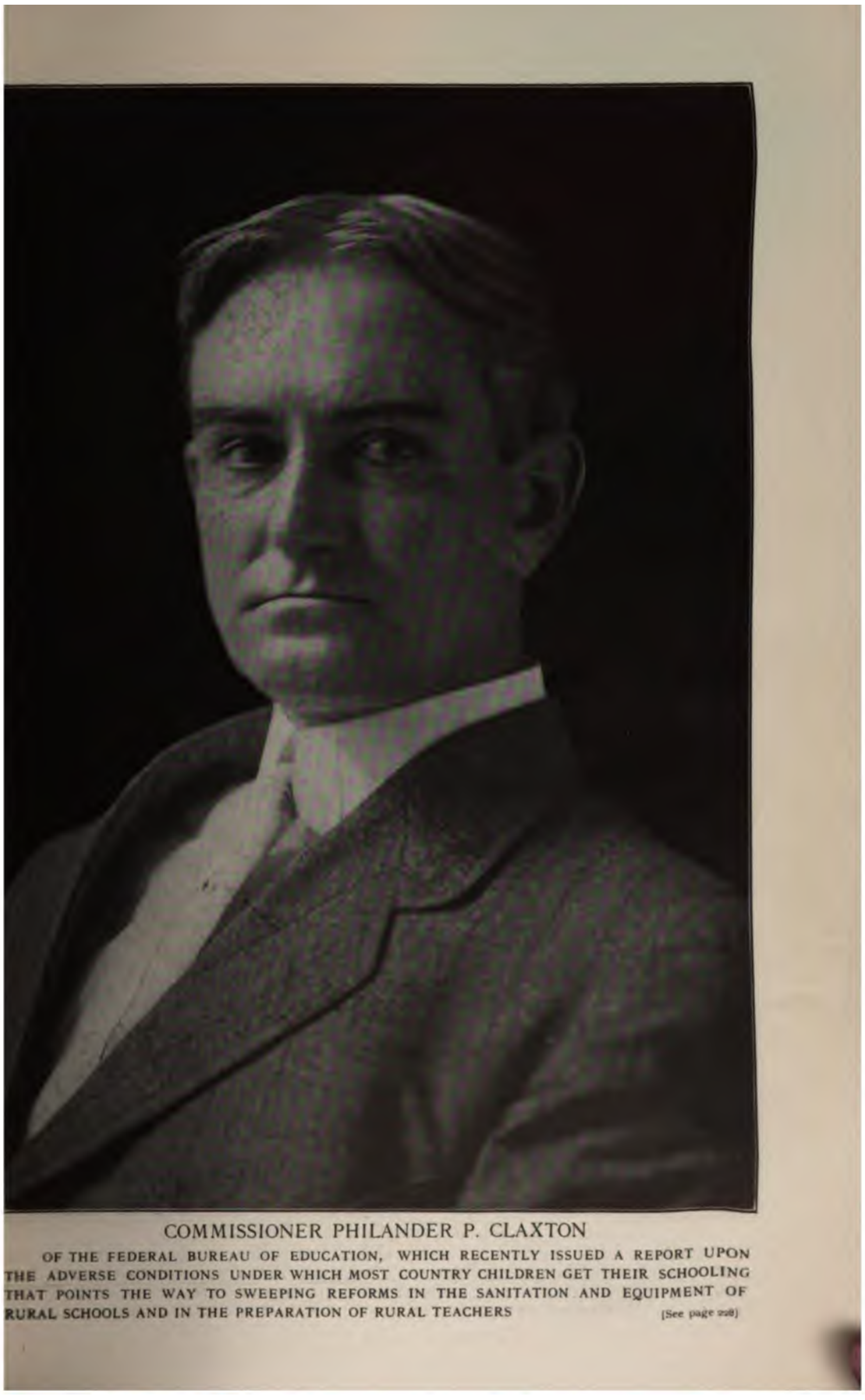

COMMISSIONER PHILANDER P. CLAXTON

OF THE FEDERAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WHICH RECENTLY ISSUED A REPORT UPON THE ADVERSE CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH MOST COUNTRY CHILDREN GET THEIR SCHOOLING THAT POINTS THE WAY TO SWEEPING REFORMS IN THE SANITATION AND EQUIPMENT OF RURAL SCHOOLS AND IN THE PREPARATION OF RURAL TEACHERS [See page 228]

MR. RICHARD CARY MORSE

WHO HAS BEEN THE GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION FOR FORTY-FOUR YEARS, AND WHO HAS HELPED, DURING THAT TIME, TO BUILD UP THAT ASSOCIATION IN THE UNITED STATES FROM A SMALL ORGANIZATION TO ITS PRESENT MEMBERSHIP OF MORE THAN HALF A MILLION MEN [See page 206]

MRS. WILLIAM C. STORY

OF NEW YORK, WHO WAS RECENTLY ELECTED PRESIDENT-GENERAL OF THE DAUGHTERS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION, A WOMEN'S PATRIOTIC SOCIETY WHICH NOW HAS MORE THAN TWELVE HUNDRED CHAPTERS AND MORE THAN NINETY-FIVE THOUSAND MEMBERS

SIR GILBERT PARKER

WHOSE LATEST NOVEL, "THE JUDGMENT HOUSE," BRINGS ONE OF THE MOST POPULAR WRITERS OF THIS GENERATION AGAIN BEFORE THE PUBLIC WITH AN IMPORTANT CONTRIBUTION TO CURRENT FICTION

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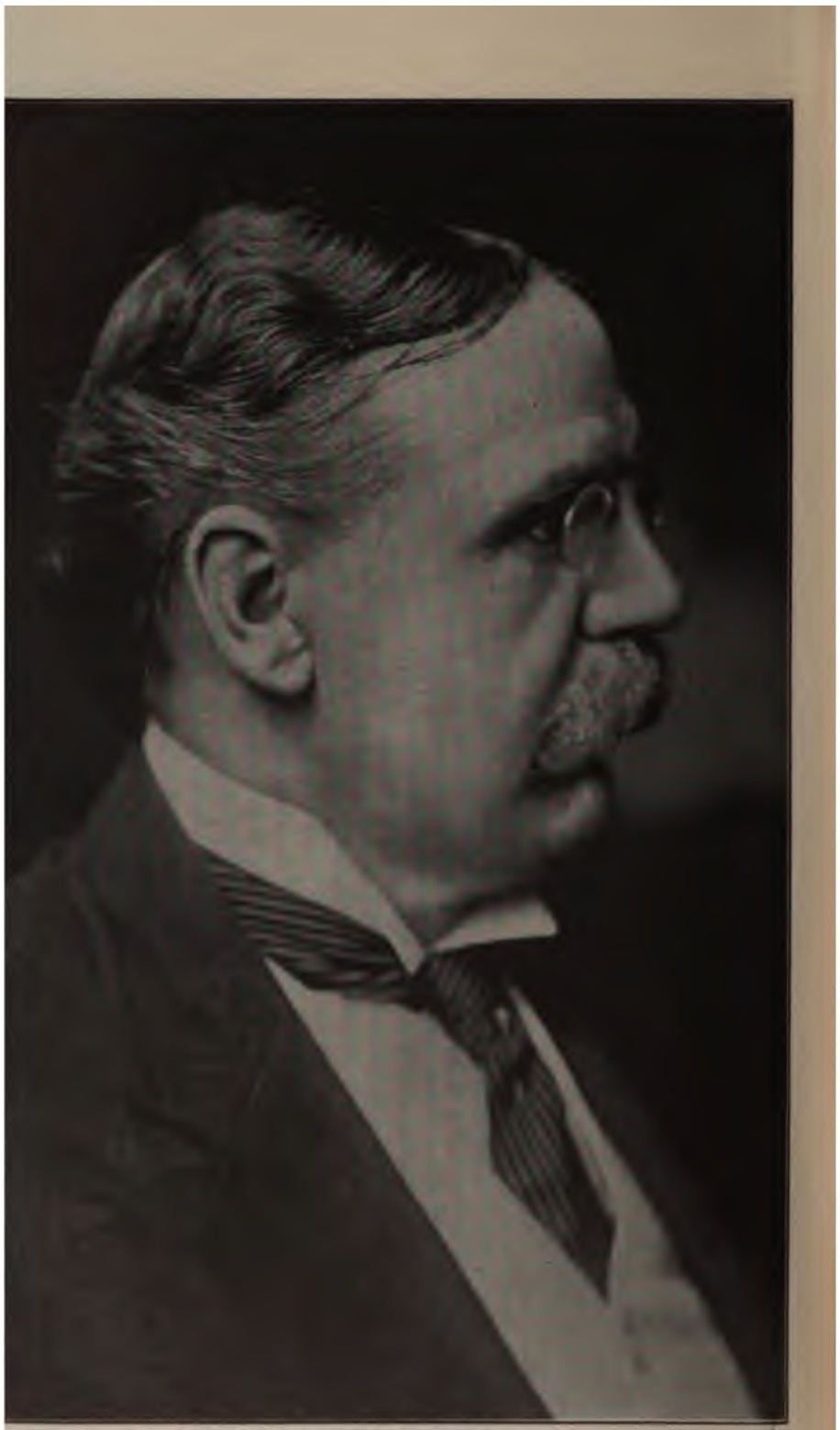
GENERAL MARIO MENOCAL

WHO TOOK OFFICE AS PRESIDENT OF CUBA ON MAY 20TH



REV. HENRY COLLIN MINTON

T OF THE SECOND WORLD'S CHRISTIAN CITIZENSHIP CONFERENCE WHICH WILL GATHER AT PORTLAND, ORE., ON JUNE 29TH

KAISER WILHELM II

WENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF HIS ACCESSION TO THE THRONE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE WILL BE CELEBRATED ON JUNE 15TH [See "The March of Events"]

THE GROWTH OF AMERICAN CITIES

UPPER PICTURE: JACKSONVILLE, FLA., AFTER THE CONFLAGRATION OF 1901; LOWER PICTURE: THE SAME VIEW IN 1913. THE POPULATION OF JACKSONVILLE IN 1900 WAS 28,000; IN 1910, 57,000, AN INCREASE OF MORE THAN 100 PER CENT. IN TEN YEARS

AN HONEST TARIFF

HE most significant fact about the Underwood tariff bill is that it is an honest bill. It marks the ng of a new era. It is the first tariff since the Civil War; for in a c a tariff can not be called honest designed to enrich a few at the e of the many, particularly if the se are to be enriched are the de- of the schedules. In the past, ngley, a woolen manufacturer, was ker of the House of Representatives ised the woolen schedule. Later drich, as leader of the Senate, al- is cotton and woolen manufactur- stituents to prepare the cotton olen schedules to their own liking. e making of an honest tariff Mr. ood, representing an iron and steel , reduces the rates on these articles. put it, if he had to be a special for the interests that happen to be in his district, he "would be un- to bear a commission from the emocratic party of this country."

contrast that tells dramatically nged attitude toward the tariff. d be more encouraging if all the atic members of Congress were as ss as Mr. Underwood. Some of hough elected on a low tariff plat- se not advocate a reduction on the s of their own districts for fear of heir seats. They present a sorry e, and their lack of courage will hem with diminished influence heir fellows. But in spite of these e new tariff is honestly conceived benefit of all the people of the States.

for example, is a little incident an indication of the difference be- he spirit in which this tariff bill pared and the spirit in which its sors were made. Ever since the ldrich tariff became law (even was being passed) "jokers" have oming to light — little phrases ly devised to look as if they meant ng and to effect another result. his present bill was under dis- a manufacturer appeared before the Ways and Means Committee to ask that, in reducing the tariff on his articles, it be reduced equally on the raw and manufactured products. Before the Committee decided upon the point an unintentional "joker" crept into the bill, taking care of it. As soon as the manufacturer saw the joker he hastened to the Committee and showed it to them, explaining that so far as he was concerned he would rather lose his point than gain it in this old-fashioned manner which would leave him open to suspicion. As he expressed it, "this bill has been made with all the cards on the table."

It is a change in principles and methods, not so much a change in men. The framers of this bill are not necessarily better men personally than the framers of the dishonest tariffs. These measures were passed with the votes and support of many of the most distinguished statesmen and honorable men of the last fifty years. But this is not inconsistent. To find a parallel you have only to look back to another economic fallacy of special privilege — the institution of slavery. It, also, was maintained by as honest and as high-minded men as were in the country. It cost a war to rid us of that economic error. If the Underwood bill is the beginning of a new era in tariff making, as it seems to be, we are getting rid of this second practice of privilege very cheaply.

But it is not a perfect tariff bill. It is not even a scientific tariff bill. The men who framed it have been struggling over tariff schedules for four years. They probably know more about them than any one else in the country. But, in the strict sense of the word, the bill is not a scientific tariff. There can be no such thing. The ramifications of trade are so infinite and so inter-related that no human mind can prophesy all the results of a change in the rates in even one schedule. Any tariff is a restraint of trade that dams or deflects the currents of commerce from their natural channels. The rates in the Underwood bill are not fair, one compared with another. It is impossible that they should be. But they represent an honest effort at fairness, an endeavor to get rid of the most glaring schedules of favor-

itism, an attempt to lighten the load of the common man.

It is noticeable that the fear of tariff revision is not nearly so extreme as it was four years ago. When a cry of calamity would block the revision of the tariff, the cry was forthcoming. Now that it would not be effective, it is not made; and in private conversation you may hear manufacturers saying, even with pride, "Well, let 'em take the tariff off, I guess I can get along." And, of course, with few exceptions they will; for there is much more of the American spirit of independence and success in our manufacturers than they themselves have been willing to admit. Leaning upon the charity of the tariff had begun to sap their manhood. But in the face of a changed condition, which many of them have wisely discounted already, there is little fear of their fulfilling their own direful prophecies. Not that such changed conditions are easy to meet; for it is impossible to tell just what effect reductions in rates will have on any one particular factory: but even the most fearful beneficiary of protection has no serious apprehension concerning the prosperity of the great bulk of our industry.

THE INCOME TAX

LIKE the rates of the new tariff, the provisions of the income tax bill are not perfect. That bill is an effort to raise revenue in a fairer fashion than by the tariff. Probably in time experience will point the way to a better income tax law. But in the meantime there is a fundamental merit which this income tax measure has in common with any other income tax bill: It is a direct tax that sharply brings home to the people the fact that they furnish the money that the Government spends. The old humbug that the foreigner paid the tariff can not be applied to the income tax. Because the tariff tax was merged in the price of our purchases we could not tell just how much it was. There is no such vagueness about the income tax. Its directness is likely gradually to educate us to a less extravagant idea of national expenditures. Certainly in this new era of a low tariff and an income tax we shall not be forced to devise wasteful means to dissipate surpluses in the Federal Treasury that were collected under a tariff that was designed as protection for favorite industries.

A RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

THE coöperation between the leaders in Congress and the President in the handling of the tariff measure and the attitude that all concerned hold toward the currency question give the Democratic party a new aspect. In spite of the Democratic stand-pat Senators, the Democratic party is fairly well knit together. It more nearly approaches being a responsible party than did its predecessor. There is a tendency toward coöperation between Congress and the President concerning the tariff which makes it more nearly like a British government measure than we are accustomed to see.

The President and the Democratic Congress were elected upon the same platform to do the same thing, and the obvious thing is to get together and do it. Mr. Wilson revived an old custom as a graceful way of making the first move in the harmonious coöperation between the legislative and administrative branches of the Government. And the President has not usurped the functions of the House nor trod upon the dignity of the Senate. Mr. Underwood's position as chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means is certainly as powerful and as useful to the public, now that Mr. Wilson goes to the Capitol, as Mr. Payne's position was when he visited Mr. Taft at the White House. The next obvious step is, not only to allow but on certain occasions to require the Cabinet members to be present on the floor of the House and the Senate. In their hands is the information upon which many of the laws should be based, and in their hands, also, is the administration of the laws after they are passed. The coördination of the Government's activities demands that Congress be able to get at the administrative parts of the Government more intimately and easily. At present, when

it wishes to know anything from a Department it makes a request for documents and it gets documents instead of facts; or else it goes through the cumbersome process of appointing an investigating committee which half the time is not ready to report until after the immediate use for the facts has passed. Congress constitutes the board of directors of the people's business, and certainly it ought to have free, easy, and intimate access to the working of the business which it directs. Frequent human contact between Congress and the Cabinet would clear away many unfortunate misunderstandings and jealousies between the legislators and the administrators which have been too common in the past. Nor would this change entail either loss or transfer of powers; it would merely put better bearings in the machinery of the Government.

II

There is, however, a reform in the machinery of Congress itself which would give it a prestige which it does not now possess, and a wider opportunity for leadership. Mr. Underwood is a national figure because he stands for a great public policy. Mr. Fitzgerald, the chairman of the Appropriations Committee, can hardly be so classed, nor as yet Mr. Glass, of the Currency Committee; nor do the names of Senators usually bring to the public mind the committees of which they are chairmen or any great public policy of which they are individually master exponents. The machinery of legislation is cumbersome. There are thousands and thousands of private bills introduced every year for private pensions, local building — all the "pork barrel" measures — and many precious days and weeks are spent in "log-rolling" them through. Within the halls of Congress itself lies the remedy. It is its own master. The day it throws off the encumbrance of private business bills and rids its members of the annoyances these things entail, it will give its members the opportunity to stand for great national policies, to train big men on big questions. We might then oftener find men who in Congress so stamped their individuality upon the public mind as to become Presidents of the United States. And such simplification and added strength in the Government is not impossible to conceive in this forward-looking era.

FOR FLEXIBLE FINANCE

THE bone and sinew of reconstruction as well as of war is money. The first need of the flood district was money, and the normal place to go for it was the local banks. To meet the immediate demands for cash these banks drew upon the balances which they had in banks elsewhere. But that, of course, was comparatively small. Normally their next step would have been to endorse local commercial paper and send it to their corresponding banks outside the flood district and get cash in return. But our national banking law provides a rigid ratio between cash reserves and liabilities. The correspondent could not send the cash to the flood district, no matter what the security, without depleting its reserves below the legal limit. The current of cash that should have flowed to the district where it was most needed was artificially stemmed. To relieve the situation the Secretary of the Treasury had to take the clumsy means of depositing several million dollars in the banks of the stricken district.

There are plenty of other examples of a need of a reform in our currency laws even if the need were not generally recognized. What currency reform needs above everything is a sponsor who commands the public confidence. It is a hopeful sign, therefore, that the President is so keenly interested in the subject. Whether a measure will come up during this extra session of Congress is doubtful, but at least the hearings have begun and begun under auspicious circumstances. There seems to be substantial agreement between Senator Owen, chairman of the Senate Committee on Banking and Currency, Representative Glass, of the corresponding House committee, and the President. The two Cabinet members with whom the President is chiefly consulting on this measure are Secretary McAdoo, of the Treasury, a man of experience in finance,

and Secretary Houston, of the Department of Agriculture, one of the country's foremost economists.

Few bills begin life under so favorable auspices for producing a good measure, and as it will be a party measure it will have a good opportunity of becoming law.

POPULARLY CHOSEN SENATORS

THE recent amendment to the Constitution providing for the popular election of United States Senators, following close upon the heels of the amendment making an income tax constitutional, is another indication of the well balanced wisdom of the framers of our government. The men of backward-looking minds have leaned upon the Constitution as a safeguard against change. Temperamentally they felt "change and decay" to be synonymous. Yet the Constitution has been changed under its own provisions. Surely we have lost nothing in dignity or soundness when change is made in this way.

On the other hand the reformers, men of immediate mind, demanding almost instantaneous decrees to right this evil and to solve that problem, have caviled at the Constitution as a refuge of "the interests," a document for conditions that we have outgrown. Yet under its provisions an amendment really desired by the people of the land is made in our fundamental law in ten months from the time it passed Congress. Surely that is quick enough.

The change, on the whole, is likely to improve the personnel of the Senate somewhat, and greatly improve the esteem in which it is held by the public. The real demand for popular election of Senators grew out of the impregnable position of the "old guard" Senators, whose political hold upon the legislatures of their states was much stronger than their hold upon the public. With direct elections it ought not to be possible again to have a Senate so much controlled by private interests as that body was during President Roosevelt's administration and during the first part of President Taft's. Senator Foraker, Senator Penrose, Senator Aldrich — it is doubtful if men without a broader sympathy with the general public than these men had would be elected by popular vote. Probably, also, men of the type represented by Senator Lorimer will disappear permanently from the Senate.

On the other hand, many people fear that the change will lose to the Senate able men who have not a personality that appeals to the public and that their places are likely to be taken by men who are skilful politicians and little else, and whose usefulness in a body of constructive lawmakers would be negligible. Such men are painfully in evidence at times in American public life but they do not frequently reach the higher places. Presidents have been elected practically by direct popular vote for 125 years and during that time the office has been held several times by men of great dignity and only mediocre ability, but never by a shallow demagogue. Of course the Senate, directly elected, will have a certain amount of demagoguery in it. It has now, but under the new method of election it should more than offset any increase in this evil by a more direct interest in the whole public's business.

THE CYCLES OF BUSINESS AND POLITICS

FIFTEEN years ago we were in the midst of an industrial renaissance. Business was the predominant note in American life. So long as business prospered, the public bothered little about the Government. In fact, business took care of that as a kind of side issue. Between that time and now is the period of the activity of Mr. Theodore Roosevelt and Mr. William Jennings Bryan, and it is not an exaggeration to credit those two vigorous characters with a large part of the changed attitude that now prevails. Now the Government is the dominant note and, incidental to its other functions, it is busy making laws for business. And the force of the revolution that has to a large measure freed national politics from business control threatened to carry us very much farther than that. So large a part of the public as the Progressive party is in favor of having commissions to regulate

all kinds of business, as we have been forced to have commissions to regulate the railroads. The Democratic Administration, on the other hand, while it is engaged in passing legislation fixing the new relationships between business and government, desires, once these are fixed, to leave business alone. That is the next phase in the cycle: politics and business unentangled, and both working wholly in the open without mutual interference.

II

Among other laws under discussion to fix the status of business are laws to prevent a manufacturer from making agreements with retailers to maintain a fixed schedule of prices for his goods. Such agreements have been held by several courts to restrain trade and to tend toward monopoly. The universal application of this rule would make a very noticeable change in marketing. Uneeda biscuits might sell in one place for five cents a package, as they do now, and in another place at two packages for nine cents. Ingersoll watches would sell at as various prices as $1.50 books do now. At least, that would at first sight seem to be the result of prohibiting manufacturers from fixing the prices of their articles.

But the actual result may be quite different. The Victor Talking Machine Company sells its products through agents who agree to maintain certain set prices. Mr. Eldridge R. Johnson, its president, states the case of his company thus:

> We market our product in the United States through about ten thousand dealers. Nine tenths of them are working hard for a living on limited capital. The other thousand possess ample capital. In order to prevent the manipulation of prices, which would tend to drive the dealers of smaller means out of the business, we sell our goods subject to a license agreement which regulates both the wholesale and the retail prices. The small dealer, with a capital of $5,000, has just the same opportunity in proportion to his capacity as has the large dealer with a capital of $10,000,000. We are not a monopoly and we do not entertain the ambition to become one. There are other manufacturers in this country making similar articles, and we compete with them in getting good agents as well as in getting trade.

There may be sufficient reason for restraining general price agreements between manufacturers, but it is hard to understand why we should be restrained from making contracts with our dealers to prevent price manipulation. Our dealers are not our competitors. They are simply our local representatives; but unless the present laws are radically changed we must, when our patents expire, either do all our own selling, thereby eliminating any competition for agents, or permit about a thousand wealthy establishments, by temporary price cutting, to monopolize the distribution of our goods. This would end a principle that we, in common with many other manufacturers, hold to be a true principle of fair dealing — that is, that goods of standard quality shall be sold to the public in every part of the country at a fixed price that every one knows, without discrimination between people or different places.

Such a frank statement would not have been made fifteen years ago when business controlled government. In the first flush of the emancipation of the Government from business control such a statement from a manufacturer would have been looked upon with suspicion. Now, happily, we are coming to a time when the frank opinions of both business men and political leaders can be stated and discussed without prejudice or suspicion; and that is a happy augury for the solution of our difficulties.

A BUREAU WITHOUT BUREAUCRACY

IN 1912, the number of men killed in the coal mines of the United States was 359 less than the number killed in 1911. Two thousand, three hundred and sixty men lost their lives in and about the mines — that is, 315 men of every 100,000 employed. As bad as that is, it is our lowest record. The comparison with previous years is:

	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
Number killed per 10,000 employed.....	4.88	3.64	4.	3.92	3.73	3.15

Back of this consistent reduction in the death rate is the United States Bureau of

Mines. It has mine rescue cars, it tests explosives for use in mining, and it makes laboratory and field investigations and experiments. But it passes no rules for mining and has no power to enforce any if it should. Its work is the thoroughly proper government task of disseminating information. It is the moving spirit in the campaign to save lives in the coal mines, but the actual supervision and regulation is done by the state departments of mines. It is a type of Federal bureau which, if ably managed, can be efficient, and which nevertheless is without the centralized power which makes bureaucracy unpopular in a democracy.

THE OBLIGATIONS OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE

RECENTLY England made an urgent demand that Guatemala pay its English debt the bulk of which has been owing for twenty-five years. It was first reported that England had delivered an ultimatum that unless the debt were paid English war ships would go to Guatemala and forcibly collect it. Happily, this was not true, but such an occurrence is not impossible. The Mexican national debt is largely held in Europe. Conditions in Mexico may easily develop to cause the interest on that debt to be defaulted.

In the event of such an occurrence, what is the duty of the United States? Under the Monroe Doctrine we look unfavorably upon the forcible collection of debts or on any intervention by a foreign power in Central or South America. The origin of this was our fear of the Holy Alliance ninety years ago. To forestall any effort on its part to recapture the revolted Spanish colonies in Latin America, President Monroe, in his message to Congress in December, 1823, said:

> With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and just principles, *acknowledged*, we could not view any interposition *for the purpose of* oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States.
>
> The American Continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power.

But we have never consistently stuck to these principles. At the end of the Civil War the United States sent troops to the Mexican border to make good its protest against the French army aiding Maximilian, and the French army withdrew in consequence. Five years later, however, England acquired British Honduras without protest from us. But twenty-five years later, when England endeavored to force her own terms in settlement of a dispute with Venezuela, President Cleveland's vigorous attitude forced arbitration.

But this is a new era. People ask whether we have a moral right to leave some of the conditions that exist in Central America. The money of foreigners is everywhere in Latin America; foreigners themselves are there in ever-increasing numbers. Trade and finance are much more international than they used to be. To extend the Monroe Doctrine to cover these points renders us liable at any time to serious international complications and responsibilities which we are not prepared to fulfil. And, moreover, the Monroe Doctrine in the vague form that it stands at present does not gain us friends in South America. The smaller Latin American republics are not sure that assumption of even a limited responsibility for them does not possibly entail a similar amount of power over them — and they point to the Canal strip.

THE RAILROADS AND THE COST OF LIVING

TWO great disputes between the Eastern railroads, as a group, and their workers have been compromised within the last eight months. These were the demand of the engineers for an increase in wages and the demand of

iremen for a similar increase. The men now in their turn ask for more s. The first dispute was arbitrated mixed board of economists, railroad and labor men. That award was tisfactory as a whole to everybody; t did increase the wages of most of the neers and, of course, it increased rail- costs. The second award, under the nan Act, had a similar result. The und of the trainmen would entail prob- the largest expense of all if it were ted and, therefore, it may be assumed if it be arbitrated it will lay an addi- l cost on the railroads probably as as the two other increases combined. the dispute is important, the results ie condition of labor are even more rtant. The rise in the cost of living ot only brought about these railroad ites, with their many attendant dan- but it has also injured the credit of railroads to such a degree that ically all the weaker systems of country are embarrassed and many, of the strongest, face a situation st unparalleled in the history of rican finance.

year ago, prophecies that any further cial strain upon the railroads would some of our best and oldest main line to pay from 6 to 7 per cent. for money sharply criticized by both bankers and ad heads. Unfortunately, the pro- es have been realized, and to-day t critics seem to be about evenly ed on the question whether or not the ncy is to go still farther. The New , New Haven & Hartford and the York Central railroads have both wed at a 6 per cent. rate, and the rn roads have fared no better. We seen, within a year, a wholesale de- in our gilt-edge railroad bonds, in cases of even 10 per cent.

the explanations of this phenomenon to the same underlying cause, ly: the increase in the cost of living; the consequent decrease in the value coupons on bonds and of the interest mortgages. The railroads, there- face a crisis in labor because their rs find the old wages insufficient to ase the necessities of life; and at the same time they face a crisis in finance because the holders of their bonds find the coupons insufficient to meet their increase in expenses. And both wages and interest charges must come out of the earnings of the railroads and must be met in full before there are any profits in the business.

On the face of it, there is some justification in the demand of the railroads for an increase in rates. Economically, however, it is easy to prove that the worst way to remedy conditions that arise as a result of the increase in the cost of living is to increase still further the cost of living by raising the price of railroad rates or by any other indirect tax on the consuming public. Therefore the demand of the railroads is, in reality, little more than a make-shift to remedy current conditions. A raise of railroad rates would give temporary relief; but it will not touch the fundamental cause of the railroad trouble.

II

What is to be the ultimate result? Are the prices of all standard interest-bearing securities throughout the world to continue on a downward course? Must the cost of living continue to rise? Will wages keep on climbing? Is the whole business world to readjust itself through the coming years to a new scale of cost of manufacture, cost of distribution, and cost to the ultimate consumer?

No one of these momentous questions can be considered by itself; but all of them must be solved through the underlying cause that has created them, namely: the remarkable increase in the cost of the necessities of life. The general average of prices to the consumer in 1912 was higher than was ever recorded in this country except in a period of war. Whether this upward tendency of prices continues or is checked will answer the problem of railroad labor, solve the trouble of crumbling trusts and breaking industries, reply to the anxious bondholder who wonders why his gilt-edge bonds are going down, and determine the anxiety of the householder swamped under his monthly bills. It is significant that the acutest phase of this trouble is occupying the minds of men at the very moment when the United States

Government is entering upon the biggest experiment of our time, a policy of tariff revision that is designed for nothing else than to reduce the cost of living and to lay the burden of the cost of Government more largely upon those who can best afford to carry it.

A STRIKE OF FARMERS' WIVES

A FEW months ago there appeared in the *Century* a story by Edna Kenton called "Solidarity." It was the story of a strike of farmers' wives. They demanded running water and other conveniences in their houses, and they left the men to do their own cooking, washing, cleaning, and mending until they should provide the proper equipment for modern housekeeping and decent living. In the story the women got what they wanted. In the country they have not; at least, the majority have not.

A year or two ago the Agricultural Department of the State of Missouri made an investigation of the reasons why the prosperous Missouri farmers gave up their farms and moved to town. The chief reason was the life that the women were compelled to live on the farm. And as it is in Missouri, so is it elsewhere. If you will ride through the countryside you will pass farm after farm equipped with modern machinery to help the men do their work. You may even see an automobile standing by the old well from which the farmer's wife draws the water for her kitchen, for her house, and for her washing, but you will see few such conveniences to lighten the labor of the home.

The women in towns and cities, if they do their own washing at all, do it with the aid of hot and cold running water, laundry rooms, and generally with the aid of hired help. Washing on the farm is a different ordeal — carrying water from the well, heating it on the kitchen range, and washing an endless amount of clothing — not only of the family, but of the hired men as well — with no help at all, or with only the most inefficient kind. This is what drives the women off the farms. It is but another phase of the unorganized isolation of country life.

The farmers near Chatfield, Minn., have the remedy. They have established a coöperative laundry next to the coöperative creamery. A farmer coming to the creamery on Monday morning brings the wash with him. On Wednesday he can take it home with him. Even by such homely things as these — were such laundries established all through the country — could a very vital change be wrought in the economics of the Nation.

THE JAPANESE CONTROVERSY

IF WE have not already lost it, we are fast losing the friendship of the Japanese people. Officialdom in Japan will do for us everything that it can. But California's attitude toward the holding of land by Japanese, coupled with the fact that they are (by treaty) ineligible to citizenship in this country, has all but stopped the flow of friendship of the people of Japan toward us. We have touched their most sensitive point — their belief in the equality of their race with all others in the world. Whatever else comes from California's action, the loss of the good will of the Japanese people is a serious loss to the whole country.

The Japanese protest against the prohibition by the California legislature of Japanese land owning is based upon the following clause of the treaty of 1911:

> The citizens or subjects of each of the high contracting parties shall have the liberty to enter, travel, and reside in the territories of the other, to carry on *trade*, wholesale and retail, to own or lease and occupy *houses, manufactories, warehouses*, and *shops;* to employ agents of their choice, to lease land for *residential* and *commercial* purposes, and generally to do anything incident to or necessary for *trade* upon the same terms as a native citizen or subject, submitting themselves to the laws and regulations there established.

Read literally, the article seems to provide only facilities for trade (and for homes for people engaged in trade). It is carefully, explicitly, and fully phrased and it does not include the privilege of leasing or owning land for agricultural purposes. New York and the District of Columbia

ıws that provide, as California to provide, that no alien may own ıless he has declared his inten- become a citizen. Arizona and gton have laws on their statute that specifically prohibit "aliens le to citizenship" from owning No complaint against these laws been made. The President's atti- that it is the function of the ıe Court to decide whether the ıians' wish is constitutional in face existing treaty which is, of course, of the supreme law of the land. s a wise and quieting attitude. ry Bryan's visit to the Coast is e to Japan of the Washington ment's friendly attitude. The case, rse, will be amicably settled, as other similar situations created by ejudices have been settled before. ere is one unquieting aspect to We have many differences with ations. We ended our treaty with We have violated the spirit if not ter of our obligations to Great concerning the collection of tolls on g through the Panama Canal. Yet ave been no mobs demanding war the United States in St. Petersburg ndon. In Japan the probability of of an act by one state discriminat- inst its people brings out mobs and war. Of course it is only talk, n that is not pleasant from a coun- which we have sent so many emis- f peace and from which we have i so many similar delegations.

II

tever may be the end of these panese land laws of the California ure, in all probability the purpose s behind them will sometime be d. The purpose is to keep out of ific Coast states the problem of a imilable race. The racial an- between Japanese and Caucasians und — and entirely mutual. The e dislike the Californians as heartily Californians dislike them. They o the country with all the equip- f bodily vigor, native intelligence, re, and courage that they find in their American competitors. They come also with a just pride in their own race and its traditions. They have no idea of exchanging their heritage for the heritage of the white men, nor of being ingredients in the "melting pot" of races. They have a contempt for white men that they do not conceal, and they do not intend to adopt the point of view of a people whom at heart they regard as their inferiors. There has been little intermarriage between the two races and what there has been has not been particularly successful. The Japanese live in "quarters," both in the cities and in the rural districts of California — settlements that are almost as distinctive and certainly as exotic as the "Chinatowns" of San Francisco and Fresno. Wherever they live, their presence depreciates the value of all adjacent property. Their mercantile establishments are of no significance in the commercial life of the community, being almost wholly small shops that cater only to the necessities and small luxuries of their own people.

In the rural districts, however, they are a strong and growing influence. They are in demand in the fruit growing sections as laborers because, having few women and no possessions, they can move to the country when they are needed and shift for themselves in the towns when they are not. The land laws, however, are aimed especially at the Japanese farmers who lease land for cultivation. The experience with these Japanese farmers repeats the history of tenant farming everywhere: the tenant forces his crops as much as possible, quickly "mines" the soil to exhaustion, and then moves on to fresh land.

There is no logical ground for special complaint against the Japanese for his commercial or agricultural activities. American farm laborers in California are even less dependable than the Japanese laborers; American tenant farmers are as careless of other people's land as the Japanese farmers are. The whole complaint ultimately comes back to a profound dislike of Japanese neighbors of any sort, based on difference of color, creed, language, ideals of government and

society, standards of morals, and — difference of race. And where that difference enters in, any problem becomes not only more immediately troublesome but fraught with untold possibilities in the future.

THE GREAT EXPERIMENT IN CHINA

SEVEN hundred earnest men of mature years, nearly all of them dressed in European fashion, met recently in Peking and with simple and solemn ceremony opened the first Chinese Parliament, thus making the oldest nation in the world into the youngest republic. They were elected by 40 million voters to begin a new era in the government of 400 million people. With this Parliament begins popular government upon a larger scale than has ever been tried in the history of the world. Our population is about one fourth that of China. No other republic approaches China in population even so closely as this. As an indication of the spirit with which the great task is being undertaken, the Government appealed to all the Christian churches in China to set aside a certain day of prayer for the success of the new régime.

The twenty-two provinces of China are nearly as autonomous as our states were before the adoption of the Constitution. These provinces collect tariff dues upon goods passing from one to another. They are not used to acting in coöperation; and even in their relations to the former Imperial Government at Peking they often showed a feeling of independence. Under the Manchus, China was a loose confederacy with a weak central government that had neither the power nor the money to become effective. To clothe the central government with power and credit is the immediate task before the framers of the new constitution. The foundation upon which they can build is (as it was with us a century and a quarter ago) the knowledge and practice of local self-government. It is now and has been for centuries a fundamental part of Chinese life. This, and the inherent ability of the Chinese in agriculture and commerce, is a solid groundwork for an effective national government.

On the other hand, the new lea China have even more difficulties t come than the framers of our Consti had. They have a much greater te and a much larger population to g and the means of communication in are still woefully inadequate. roads practically do not exist; the are greatly used, but of course serv the commerce that originates alon courses. Railroads have made gre gress in China during the last ten but they are not extensive enou carry more than an infinitesimal prop of the nation's internal commerce. telegraph and postal services are popular use, nor is the telephone. over, the language of the common of one province is not spoken in an even from one valley to the next are changes. Nor is China racially geneous. The five colors of the ne are symbols of five races which the C count among themselves. To make a governable republic there is nee common language and efficient com cation—a public school system, roads, railroads, telegraphs, telephon newspapers. Until these things through the slow processes of educa people, the machinery of governme be clogged by ignorance and prejudi

In the meanwhile, the immediate lems would be critical even for a long practised in the use of the mac of democratic government. The M government, derived its revenue from practically amounted to tribute from the provinces. For the cond the multitudinous affairs of a m government, this tribute money is pi inadequate. It was hardly enou support the Manchus' medieval The salt monopoly is practically th other source of revenue for the c government. The customs duties lected under English supervision, an to pay indemnities of one kind and a which the Europeah countries hav posed upon China, to repay loans. the country's greatest source of re the tariff, is used chiefly for the ben foreign nations. The immediate pro before the Republic are to get cont

ınces; to get an adequate source of ıe, so that it will not be subject to :mands of the money-lending coun- and to build up an army and navy ill prevent further encroachments by ı Powers, for no government will long ıular in China that is forced to make e concessions to other nations. And w leaders are already beset. Russia, e northwest, has practically taken ɔlia; and England, on the southwest, ven notice that it has acquired an ıt in Thibet. And money for China's : needs is offered by foreign countries ıpon humiliating terms, the accep- of which creates a popular feeling t the new government.

new Republic is in a most difficult on. It is entitled to our sympathy pport, to the formal recognition that ıited States Government has prom- , and, so far as we can insure it, :hance to work out its own salvation.

THE PRICE OF WAR

·HIS year, the one hundredth anni- versary of the political uprising and the new birth of Prussia and twenty-fifth year of the reign of the t Emperor of Germany, finds him ring the addition of 4,000 officers about 130,000 non-commissioned ; and men to the present tremendous ın army. The increase by itself er cent. larger than our whole army. it the German army is seven and a mes as large as ours. To put its g force on this new basis the Govern- proposed to raise $240,000,000 by a extraordinary war contribution of cent. upon private fortunes above and of 2 per cent. upon incomes of o and above, and, after that, for ınual expense of maintenance, an $45,000,000 a year.

ılitary policy of this kind, promul- when Germany is at peace with the shows how far removed the Ger- Government is from the great ratic forces which have made over ny governments in the last fifty War is against the interests of the ın man and he is coming more and more to realize what his interests are and his power to enforce them. In Germany, however, the natural military spirit in the people, the memory of their successful wars with Austria, Denmark, and France, and the Government's continual propaganda for more battleships and more soldiers, have combined to prevent any effective popular protest against the Kaiser's ever-increasing expenditures for warlike purposes.

But, unhappily for the Government, almost simultaneously with its proposal for an extraordinary war measure, comes the disclosure that at least a part of the demand for greater armaments is manufactured clandestinely by the ordnance and armor plate manufacturers for their own profit. The great Krupp Steel Works are charged with bribing Government officials in Germany, and another great armament concern with sending an agent to Paris to induce a French journal to publish a report that France was about to double its orders for field guns, so that the German Government would feel that it, too, had to do the same. The armor plate manufacturers are accused of subsidizing German newspapers to conduct crazy campaigns of hatred against England and France, all the while selling weapons to these nations — playing one nation off against another for their own profit.

In the words of President Jordan, of Leland Stanford University, written six months ago:

> There can be no doubt that the most powerful lobby in the world is that employed by the great armament builders of England and Germany. It is equally plain that these huge rival war trusts consciously and purposely play into each other's hands. The war scare as promulgated through the "Armor-Plate Press" of these countries is the chief agency for affecting public opinion and controlling the action of Reichstag and Parliament. The greater and more imminent the danger, the louder the journalistic noise, the greater the appropriations are likely to be. But when one remembers that the financial resources of all the nations concerned are already strained to the limit of exhaustion by war expenditures in time of peace, and this in spite of the interrelations and mutual dependence of the civilized world which render war impossible, one can

see no reality in these clamors. They would be simply ridiculous were it not for their malicious efficiency in wasting the substance of the people.

From 1881 to 1910, six nations (Germany, England, France, Austria, Italy, and Russia) have spent $31,930,000,000. Germany, with no wars during this period, spent $6,000,000,000, or about as much as one fourth the capitalization of all the industrial and manufacturing corporations in the United States in 1910. And now, just after a $500,000,000 war in the Balkans, when money for the constructive work of the world is scarce, the German Government proposes its $240,000,000 increase in its war establishment. This can hardly be classed as twentieth century economic statesmanship, for certainly no nation whose foreign affairs are well managed should be on such terms with its neighbors that it has to levy such extraordinary war taxes.

If Germany expects war — in that case such preparations are justified. The last two wars, the struggles between the Allies and Turkey and between Japan and Russia, as well as the Franco-Prussian war, point the same military moral. Modern war is intense and short; and the victory goes to the side that is prepared.

Germany is taking no chances of unpreparedness. It is so well prepared that its very preparation has become a menace to the peace of Europe. The country and its army have become, not insurance of peace, but a continual threat of war. This state of preparation of the German people costs $400,000,000 a year. The United States is at the opposite extreme. So far as the army is concerned we are unprepared for war and always have been. We believe in that policy. When war comes upon us we send our unprepared citizen soldiery into the field to get their training at the hands of the enemy. This is an expensive method also. The citizens of the United States pay now approximately $460,000,000 a year (more than the Germans will pay even after the proposed increase) for a scattered, unprepared army of 100,000 men, an efficient though undermanned navy, and a pension roll of citizen soldiers which would not exist in anything like its present extent if we had h adequate trained army when we we war in 1846, 1861, or 1898. Some between these two extremes lies the of common sense and statesmanship

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FIFTY YEARS OF FREEDOI

IT IS fifty years since the Ema tion Proclamation was issued. a fair time to strike a balance of the Negroes' condition and pro There is no better judge of the con of the American Negro than Mr. B T. Washington. He has traveled taught and talked and worked amo people from one end of the South t other, and in the North as well. comparison, not long ago he made to study the conditions of the lower of society in Europe. As a result of investigations he says, in his book, Man Farthest Down":

If I were asked what I believed wo the greatest boon that could be conferre the English laborer, I should say that it be for him to have the same opportunit constant and steady work that the N now have in the South.

And

The Negro in the South has opportun another direction that no other man position has, outside of America: he h opportunity to get land.

Another record of Negro progress in a recent bulletin of the Ha Institute, prepared by Mr. Monr Work. The following are a few st statistics of the Negroes' material ad

In 1867, there were only 111,442 and 2,087 teachers in schools for Ne Of these teachers, only 699 were co Last year, 1,700,000 Negro pupils taught by 31,000 Negro teachers. In only 4,661 Negroes were studying in institutions of learning; last year than 100,000 students were enroll normal schools and colleges for c folk. In 1863, there were only fo stitutions in the United States for advanced study. Now there are i South alone 50 colleges, 13 institutio

the education of Negro women, 26 theological schools, 3 schools of law, 5 of medicine, 4 of pharmacy, 17 state agricultural and mechanical colleges, and more than 400 normal and industrial schools.

To-day, more than 20,000 Negroes are in business for themselves as storekeepers or in other mercantile pursuits; Negroes own 100 insurance companies and 300 drug stores; more than fifty thousand Negroes are in the professions. More than 300,000 Negroes are working in the skilled trades. Sixty-four Negro banks do about $20,000,000 worth of business every year.

Negro farmers control about 42 million acres of land. Of these farmers, 219,647 own their farms, about 20 million acres in all. The total value of farm property owned by Negroes is more than 490 million dollars. In fifty years of freedom the Russian serfs have accumulated, on an average, property worth $36 per capita. The Negroes, in the same time, have acquired $70 worth of property per capita.

This year is the fiftieth anniversary of Negro freedom. The progress of the race in that half century is, in the aggregate, a remarkable achievement. And with the confident hope of its wisest leaders and with the encouragement of an increasing body of forward looking white men, the outlook for the future is full of promise of an accelerated advance in economic and educational development.

BACKWATERS OF HUMANITY

ALONG the banks of even the clearest streams of life are backwaters of dead mentality. There are country slums as bad as the worst city slums, and they are accepted in good communities merely because people are used to them. For half a century "pore whites" were looked upon as a necessary evil in the South. Now the cotton mills are bringing thousands of them out of isolation into the main current of life again; the Hookworm Commission is curing them of disease and putting new life and hope in them; and people are beginning to realize that the plight of the forgotten man is not his fault alone, and that his depressing influence spreads throughout his community. Not long ago startling statements were made concerning degenerate communities in the Adirondacks; and now comes a report of a people called the "Pineys" who exist amid squalor and degeneracy in the pine belt of New Jersey. The State Department of Charities of New Jersey made a thorough investigation of these folk and among other records summarized the history of 199 members of one family as follows:

Individual Recorded	Male	Female	Total
Normal	10	3	13
Partly normal	2	2	4
Unknown	2	5	7
Normal and criminal	1	..	1
Degenerate	60	64	124
Degenerate and almshouse	3	3	6
Degenerate and criminal	15	5	20
Degenerate and almshouse and criminal	1	1	2
Degenerate, and illegitimate	6	9	15
Degenerate, illegitimate, and almshouse	.	2	2
Degenerate, illegitimate, almshouse, and criminal	2	..	2
Illegitimate, partly normal	1	..	1
Illegitimate, died in infancy	1	..	1
Died in infancy	..	1	1
	104	95	199

It is hard to estimate accurately the fearful cost that such a family is to the State. Certainly it is many times more than the cost of prevention. And it is one of the most hopeful facts of our era that devoted men and generous men in increasing numbers are giving their time and their means to organize rural life so that such ignorance and degeneracy may not be possible in any part of the country.

A GREAT OPPORTUNITY

ELSEWHERE in this number are two articles which give a picture of the deplorable state of a large part of our rural schools, in which untrained teachers in unequipped buildings try to teach more subjects to more children than is physically possible. This is not meant as a criticism of the teachers. In spite of their handicaps many of them achieve marvels, yet the conditions under which many of them work necessarily doom them to comparative failure; and when the schools fail in their mission they

leave a condition fertile with the possibilities of "Pineys" and "pore whites," of poor living and low thinking. The poor schools, even the worst of them, do not create these conditions. They merely do not prevent them. And the rural schools are probably better than they ever have been. But our growing sense of social betterment demands more now than it did a generation ago, and in an optimistic mood we look at the present state of rural education to see what tremendous things a right system of rural public schools can do for the Nation. Such schools are coming. There is an ever-increasing number of examples to show what a tremendous influence for progress the right kind of a country school can be.

DESCENDANTS OF THE DEVIL

PROFESSOR Paul Haupt, of Johns Hopkins University, is quoted in a newspaper dispatch as having said that Beelzebub was described by the ancients as "the father of flies" (not of lies, as is commonly said), for the men of Biblical times had a proper fear of these germ-carrying insects. Their fears were based upon uncertainty. Our fears are founded on the fact that flies breed and live in filth and carry filth with them wherever they go, and that they are the great purveyors of the germs of typhoid.

There is only one way to get rid of the uncomfortable feeling that the food you eat has been tracked over by the flies bred in the garbage or the stable, or the fear of typhoid, and that one way is to get rid of the flies.

To use screens and to "swat" the flies are the defences after the enemy is on the premises. The one sure way to have comfort is to prevent them by leaving no garbage or filth of any kind exposed for them to breed in. This is the first move in the campaign against the filthy fly. The second is to get your neighbor to do likewise, and the third is for you and your neighbor to persuade the butcher, the grocer, the baker, and all the other dealers in foods to beware of flies. Two or three customers can make a better argument than one.

TO SAVE BIRDS AND MONEY

THE last Congress included in the Agricultural Appropriation Bill what might appear to be a fantastic and sentimental piece of legislation. This was the McLean Bill, which delegated to the Department of Agriculture the power to protect migratory birds from death at the hands of ruthless hunters.

But it is safe to assume that Congress was not moved so much by sentiment as by statistics, and here are some of the figures in the case, based upon the fact that men destroy the birds that destroy the insects that destroy the crops:

An official census showed that the actual damage done to crops by insects in a single year (1904) amounted to $420,100,000, of which nearly one half was damage done to cereals alone.

An unofficial estimate puts the total annual damage now at $800,000,000, or an average of $1.67 an acre on the improved land of the United States, a sum which makes the farmer's taxes look small.

The official figures also put the annual cost of the codling moth and curculio at about $8,250,000 for spraying operations alone, and $12,000,000 as representing the shrinkage in the value of the apple crop.

The damage done in some years by the chinch-bug wheat pest and the cotton-boll weevil is reckoned at $40,000,000.

Tree insects cost $100,000,000 a year.

Now there are birds that feed upon these insects, and that eat enormous quantities of them; the entomologists have proved this. In fact, if the insectivorous birds were allowed to live unmolested, the oversupply of destructive pests would be wiped out and the balance of nature restored. But plumage collectors and pot hunters shoot the insectivorous birds, and with the decrease in the numbers of the birds the insect enemies of agriculture increase.

Most of these birds are migratory and cannot be protected in any one state. For that reason the Federal Government may properly assume guardianship over them to prevent their extermination.

Another radical step to protect birds was taken when the Ways and Means

Committee of the House voted to include in the new tariff bill a clause to prohibit the importation of all plumes, skins, or feathers of wild birds, other than ostriches, for sale or for use in millinery. If this clause remains in the bill to its passage, it will stop at once a large share of the destruction of the beautiful and rare birds that are rapidly being exterminated.

LOCAL CARE OF TUBERCULOSIS

ONCE in a while a letter comes to this office telling of the pitiful plight of many hundred victims of tuberculosis in Colorado, California, and Arizona, people who have left their homes in other parts of the country and journeyed west upon slender resources in search of health. Many of them hopefully expect to get some light work to support themselves during convalescence. The light and profitable work does not materialize and they become a serious problem to the community.

Two years ago the State Board of Health of California appointed a Tuberculosis Commission to make a careful study of the tuberculosis conditions in that state.

The commission points out that the people seeking cures have made the situation there extreme. The following suggestion of the secretary of the State Board of Health should be scattered broadcast through the country:

1. Tuberculosis patients who think of migrating should first learn all that is known about the climate, opportunities for making a livelihood, living conditions, laws, attitude of the people toward patients in their condition, and special accommodations for their care in the place to which they intend to go. Hundreds of patients — probably thousands — die of homesickness in strange communities who would have lived in their own homes under proper care. Many patients lose their vitality under the strain of the effort to find work that is suited to their training and condition. And many patients, if they only knew it, could find better conditions for recovery in their own communities — better food, better care, and better mental environment, with almost as favorable climate for their needs — than they are likely to find in a strange community.

The commission recommends also a comprehensive and logical plan for taking care of California's own tubercular patients. The first step in this plan is a chain of dispensaries so placed that there shall be one in every city of 10,000 or more people, and traveling dispensaries to provide one or two days' service a month at convenient branch stations. These dispensaries are to furnish an early diagnosis and expert advice to all sufferers from tuberculosis and to obtain early information of the existence of all cases so that the spread of infection may be limited.

The second step of the plan proposes two sanatoria for hopeful cases, five farm colonies for convalescents, and hospital beds for 1,500 probably incurable cases. Bills before the present session of the state legislature, with a fair chance of passage, provide for carrying these recommendations into effect. The estimated first cost is $1,160,000, and the estimated yearly cost of maintenance is about $1,000,000, which is a reasonable sum to expend to save an annual loss of at least $8,000,000 in lost wages and cost of care, and an incalculable amount of suffering.

A similar method of meeting the tuberculosis problem is suggested by Dr. E. H. Galloway, the executive officer of the Mississippi State Board of Health. His plan is that every county shall take care of its own consumptives; or perhaps, where counties are particularly free from the disease, that two or three counties shall combine. Open air camps under competent physicians would produce the maximum of health to the patients with the minimum cost of money and suffering. The patients would not be far removed from their families and friends, and this should add to their chance of recovery. Dr. Galloway concludes his recommendation with these words, which are as applicable to most of the rest of the country as they are to Mississippi:

We now know that a large number of these cases can be cured which we formerly thought were doomed. How much better this method

would be than to send them West, as we now do, a great many of them without money and no means to support themselves, practically outcasts, unable to work, and a care to the community where they go, dying among strangers.

A WORLD'S WORK ANNOUNCEMENT

THE WORLD'S WORK, as its readers know, is under obligation to but one class of persons, namely, its readers; and to them it is under a definite contract to publish the truth, as nearly as it can ascertain the truth, and to remain free — free to pass unbiased judgments on public policies and public men. For instance, it thought it wise to approve most of Mr. Roosevelt's policies during his Presidency; but it did not hesitate to oppose Mr. Roosevelt last fall, when he was a candidate for a third term. It preferred Mr. Taft's election in 1908; but it did not hesitate thereafter to criticize what seemed his mistakes and hesitant temperament; and it opposed his reëlection last year. This perfect freedom is the breath of life of this magazine.

These obvious remarks it seems pardonable now to repeat because Mr. Walter H. Page, who has been the chief editor of the WORLD'S WORK, has accepted a post in the diplomatic service. He has withdrawn from the management of the magazine and its councils during the period of his Government service, leaving it wholly free from any imaginary obligation to Mr. Wilson's administration or to Mr. Page himself. The magazine will suffer no change, for the work of editing it has for a long time and in an increasing degree been team-work. The editorial staff are now old in its service. They work with unity of aim and with the single purpose of fairly and freely interpreting our many-sided life to its generous readers.

INVESTMENT "CATS AND DOGS"

A WOMAN, living out in a thriving Nebraska town, came into possession, through the death of her husband about a year ago, of an estate which consisted of a small mercantile business, a credit balance of a few hundred dollars at the local bank, and some stock certificates of the total face value of several thousand dollars, representing "investments" that had been made by her husband from time to time in a half dozen or more companies.

She assumed at once the responsibilities of the management of the business, hopeful that, with the help of her two grown children, she could continue to make it yield, as it had in the past, a comfortable living for them all. But, to her dismay, she made the discovery shortly afterward that the business was burdened with debt, and that the creditors were not of the indulgent sort.

Failing to obtain an extension of time in which to meet the creditors' claims, and finding that she could not borrow enough money at the bank, she determined, reluctantly, as a last resort, to sell her stocks. She found, moreover, that the local banker could not help in that transaction. So she sent to this magazine a list of her securities, and asked to be advised how to proceed to market them, and how much cash she could reasonably expect them to bring.

The list was made up entirely of a kind of stocks about which there was a good deal of inquiry a few years ago, but which is rarely mentioned nowadays in this magazine's investment correspondence. The records showed that two of the companies represented had gone out of business in 1906, apparently without sufficient assets to have made any accounting worth while. Two were found to have lost title to their properties through failure to pay taxes, and were classed as "dead". And three were found to have been promotions of men who had been gathered into the net of the post-office authorities, and convicted on charges of using the mails to

defraud. The stocks were all useless as a means of saving the woman's business.

This story is typical of the kind most frequently heard about unwise investment. It has become a more or less common habit to think of the surplus of the unwary country merchant, the mite of the widow, the legacy of the orphan, the hard-earned savings of the parson, or the spare dollars of the self-sacrificing school teacher, as the only funds that get earmarked for the promotion of precarious enterprise. One reason for this notion is that the records of such cases are the most easily found. For instance, one may pick up one's newspaper almost any day and find an account of the financial misfortunes of credulous investors of small means, who have been called to bear witness against the promoters of "get-rich-quick" schemes.

Though it is undoubtedly true that the losses of investors of this class, lured into mistakes by extravagant advertisements in conscienceless newspapers or by cunningly written circular letters, run into many millions yearly, they are probably exceeded in amount by the losses that are made in securities of doubtful merit by even the shrewdest and most successful business men. Not infrequently, a case of the latter kind comes to light, where the "victim" is found to have been some man of great prominence in the financial world. He may even have been one of those commonly credited with some mysterious faculty for achieving success in the investment markets — perhaps, one of those whose successes are sometimes ascribed to "inside information" and other like advantages that are not possessed by the average investor.

For example, it was shown by the expert appraisal of the $70,000,000 estate of the late Edward H. Harriman that that great railroad genius and financier had among his holdings of securities worthless stocks and bonds of the par value of more than $4,000,000. Several millions of such securities were reported by the experts who completed in April last their appraisal of the real and personal property of the possessor of the great Astor fortune, who lost his life in the *Titanic* disaster in the spring of 1912. And while these instances are being noticed widely in the current news, similar instances can be recalled from the older records. Appraisers of the $66,000,000 estate of Russell Sage, who died in 1906, reported as worthless a miscellaneous lot of stocks and bonds, amounting to about $1,000,000 par value. Among the securities in the $75,000,000 estate of Jay Gould, who died in 1892, there were worthless issues of the face value of $2,000,000.

But, however striking these examples of unwise investments made by men so able to command investment wisdom, there is little in them that should cause the investor of more limited resources to despair. From the lists of worthless securities held by almost any wealthy investor like a Harriman or an Astor, it is necessary to make a good many eliminations to get at an estimate of the amount which measures actual error of judgment. Many stocks and bonds of strange names and characteristics find their way into the possession of such investors, bringing little, if any, expectation of return. The percentage of their capital which such men put deliberately into ventures of the essentially risky type is in most cases small indeed. The records show that, after all, the "rich man's gamble," pure and simple, is not as big by comparison as it is frequently made to appear. By way of contrast, consider the difference between the principles of distribution observed by the man who, out of resources of $70,000,000, stakes a million or so on enterprises of honest conception, which turn out merely to have been misguided, and the principles oberved by the investor who, like the Nebraska lady, stakes nearly everything on enterprises that are as likely as not to be wilfully fraudulent.

Just ordinary business prudence will usually tell any investor how to discriminate for himself between these two kinds of enterprise, and how much, if any, rein he can properly give to his inclination to take a chance for large returns. Business prudence will allow the small capitalist, in mighty few instances, to go far afield from the safest of standard investment securities, and invariably it will prescribe for him the most competent banking counsel.

MR. BRYAN

THE MELLOWED VETERAN OF MANY POLITICAL CAMPAIGNS AS HE APPEARS TODAY IN PUBLIC OFFICE AFTER SEVENTEEN YEARS IN THE OPPOSITION — A KINDLY, CONSCIENTIOUS, DEVOUT, AND LABORIOUS MAN WHOSE CHIEF CHARACTERISTIC IS SIMPLICITY OF HEART AND MIND

BY

WILLIAM BAYARD HALE

THE relations between the President and his Secretary of State afford Washington and the political world in general their most precious subject of gossip. Few politicians believed that Mr. Bryan would be in Mr. Wilson's Cabinet. Many doubted that he would be asked; more believed he would decline. When they learned that he both had been asked and had accepted, there was a pretty general falling back on the dark prediction that the relationship of President and Premier would endure only a few months. Two men so ambitious, it was argued, could not possibly be expected to pursue a common course. Two temperaments so imperious could not get along together. Mutual suspicions, if not mutual antagonisms, were certain to arise. The aim of one would be to make his administration so great a success that he would be acclaimed for a second term; the other would hardly have that as an aim, especially in view of the Baltimore platform declaration in favor of a single term.

With regard to the single term, that is a matter which undeniably lies unsettled, undiscussed, unreferred to, between the two men. But that is precisely where it ought to lie. There often arise questions which no discussion and no announcement of intentions can settle; which must be left to settle themselves. Mr. Bryan undoubtedly believes that the Baltimore plank pledges Mr. Wilson to a single term. Probably Mr. Wilson has no such idea. He has never declared his acceptance of the Baltimore platform, and the single term plank is highly ambiguous—it assumes to pledge the candidate to "the principle" of a single term. There were those who believed that if Mr. Bryan were invited to join the Cabinet, he would ask Mr. Wilson whether they were in agreement on that plank. We may assume with entire confidence that that question was never asked — for, of course, Mr. Wilson could not have permitted himself to answer it.

The truth is, the subject is peculiarly and entirely one which can be dealt with wisely, from every point of view, in just one way — and that way is, by letting it alone. It would be an exhibition of very poor taste for Mr. Wilson to refuse a second term before any one had suggested offering him one. It would be impolitic for him to do so, for it would weaken his influence. It would be as idle for him to do so as it was for one of his predecessors to refuse, four years in advance, a third term. If, as the campaign of 1916 draws on, Mr. Wilson's administration has been a failure, it will not be necessary to appeal to the Baltimore plank to prevent his re-nomination. If it has been the success his friends believe it will be, the Baltimore plank will be forgotten; no pledge could have been invented so solemn that its recollection could stop his re-nomination. The single term question will settle itself.

Now, Mr. Bryan knows this. He is not so unpractised in practical politics as to believe that an ambiguous platform plank is going to have any consideration in 1916. Yet to deny that the defeated hero of three campaigns would like to be President would take hardihood indeed. My conclusion is that Mr. Bryan, so far as he is actuated by any ambitious anticipations,

expects nothing else than to succeed Mr. Wilson in 1921. He will then be only sixty-one years old, and he will be as mellowed and widely beloved a man as ever sat in the chair of Washington and Jefferson and Lincoln. Not a vestige then will remain of the hate that villified him. His career will round itself out completely, in the light which it is already assuming, as one of the most remarkable illustrations of the reversal of a people's judgment.

The only other tenable theory is that Mr. Bryan hopes to wreck the Administration. Some light on this hypothesis may be thrown by a passage of words that took place last winter; my account may be taken as authentic. A political friend was suggesting to Mr. Bryan that it would be a mistake for him to commit his fortunes to the Wilson Administration. "Stay out of it," he urged. "Suppose it is a failure. You will be involved, and be discredited yourself. The nomination in 1916 wouldn't come to you, and if it did, it wouldn't be worth while for a member of the Cabinet to run."

"Have you reflected, my friend," was Mr. Bryan's reply, "that if the Wilson Administration is a failure, it won't be worth while for *any* Democrat to run in 1916?"

Mr. Bryan is in the Cabinet in good faith. It is impossible that he should not be conscious of the irony which, in the hour of Democratic victory, ignoring him who chiefly bore the burden and heat of the day, gave the reward to another. Mr. Bryan is hardly a philosopher, but he is a believer in Providence, habituated to a pious submission to the inscrutable decrees of the God whom he loyally serves.

II

The time has come when a new estimate of the character of this remarkable man is making its way into the consciousness of the Nation. It would be untrue to say that no man in our political history has been so vilified, for the language in which Jefferson was held up by his opponents to contempt and abhorrence has now passed out of the speaking and writing vocabulary of civilized society. But nothing within the memory of this generation matches the abominating horror the shrieks of which greeted the nomination of the "cross of gold" orator.

To hear him execrated as a fellow of Aaron Burr, Benedict Arnold, and Judas Iscariot was common a dozen years ago. "Mouthing demagogue," "anarchist," "renegade," "puppet in the blood-imbued hands of Altgeld" — such were the ordinary epithets by which he was described. I have seen men cleanse their mouths after having spoken the name of Bryan. For years, half of the people of the United States piously believed that William Jennings Bryan was a depraved, vicious man; an enemy of law and of Society. Almost as many more, it is true, hailed him as a Savior; thousands would have laid down their lives for him. But the astonishing fact is that the virulence of the hate which, on his appearance, broke out and raged like a pestilence or a mania, has disappeared. He has not changed; he has not recanted. He has just lived.

"What is truth?" said jesting Pilate, and would not stay for an answer. "What is success?" is a query on which the meditative might reflect with possible profit. To go down in battle three times; to be still denied, in 1912, what seemed almost within reach in 1896; after sixteen years of unprofitable fighting to hand over the leadership at the dawn of a new and propitious day to a new captain unheard of in the earlier battles — this would not commonly be said to describe "success." But can you say that that man is a defeated man who now sees his principles prevail and the party that he fought to save from itself finally committed to all he stood and stands for and finally triumphant in the Nation that so long rejected it? There is nothing so vulgar as "success." Anybody can "succeed." It takes the great to "fail." Mr. Bryan belongs to one aristocracy — the aristocracy of men who might "succeed," but who magnificently decline to do so; who set their hearts on a great end but scorn to stipulate for the personal rewards which in the eyes of the vulgar are the proof and perquisites of triumph.

At the nominating convention held in

St.Louis in 1904, Mr. Bryan, declining then to run a third time, returned the commission, as he put it, which he had held for eight years as leader of the party. The climax of this, one of his most affecting speeches, was in these words:

"You may dispute whether I have fought a good fight; you may dispute whether I have finished my course; but you can not deny that I have kept the faith."

And the faith has triumphed. The free coinage of silver, even if you regard it as an utterly mistaken and mischievous idea, was, after all, only a passing expression of the doctrine that human rights are higher than property rights. On the subject of the relationship of the man and the dollar, the thought of the Nation has been completely revolutionized within the last sixteen years — and it is that revolution which has given birth to the whole programme of economic reform and social justice with its concern over the welfare of women and children, workingmen's insurance, and all the rest of it. The initiative and referendum, which might have been a rare zoölogical specimen, so far as most people knew, when Mr. Bryan began to advocate it, is here. Direct nominations, campaign publicity, the responsibility of the courts to the people, are popular and triumphing doctrines. The Constitution has been altered to permit the popular election of United States Senators and the imposition of the income tax.

Is this failure or success?

Indeed, so thorough has been the triumph of Mr. Bryan's faith that, unless he shortly finds new articles for it, he will be left behind by the progressive temper of the country. It was after Mr. Roosevelt's election to the Presidency eight years ago, during a dinner at which they were both present, that I heard Mr. Bryan humorously charge the Republican President with having "stolen his clothes." Mr. Bryan told how an old darkey woman lying sick had finally sent for the white physician in the neighborhood, the colored "doctor" having failed to give her relief. The new physician said: "Well, aunty, you had to send for me after all, didn't you? What did that old fraud do for you? Did he find out what was the matter with you? Did he take your temperature?" Aunty replied: "'Deed sir, I don't know what all he done took. I ain't had time look 'round yit, but dem no 'count niggahs liable take anything." Mr. Bryan wasn't sure that Mr. Roosevelt had left him even his temperature. That was a good joke in 1905. In 1913, it is a pure matter-of-fact statement to say that Mr. Bryan has, between Democrats and Progressives, been spoiled of every idea he ever had.

III

There shines out in Mr. Bryan's life a personal quality without recognition of which no analysis of his character is complete — a quality which indeed is its core and key.

Where, outside of the story of this man's life, shall you find a candidate for Congress at the close of the campaign gravely and gently presenting his adversary with a copy of Gray's "Elegy," expressing good wishes for his foeman, whether the morrow's balloting gave or forbade him

The applause of listening Senates to command!

Where, in the annals of hot partisan strife, will you find an orator, facing the enmity of a frenzied national convention, throwing away a point because he had caught sight of a wife in the throng of ten thousand?

The first draft of Mr. Bryan's resolution asking for the withdrawal of Mr. Ryan and Mr. Belmont from the Baltimore convention contained a passage referring to the methods by which Mr. Taft had just obtained his re-nomination at Chicago. It was the climax of the resolution. When Mr. Bryan came down from the platform after the dramatic speech offering this resolution, his friend and old-time secretary, Mr. Robert F. Rose, pulled him by the coat and said: "What became of the passage about Taft?" Mr. Bryan turned his head and asked in reply: "Why, didn't you see that Mrs. Taft was in the gallery?"

Where, in all the chronicles of Jeffersonian simplicity, more or less spontaneously practised in Democratic times at Washington, is a match for this? —

Mr. Bryan now rides in a carriage

furnished by the Government and driven by an Irishman who has conducted the Secretaries of State about Washington for nearly a quarter of a century. Mr. Bryan immediately became interested in his coachman, as he does in everybody associated with him in any capacity. A day or two before the delivery of the St. Patrick's Day speech which, by its comment on the abolition of the House of Lords, caused some comment in England, the Secretary asked his driver if he were going to the St. Patrick's Day dinner which the Irish societies of Washington were giving. No, the driver wasn't going. "Well, I should like to have you go," said Mr. Bryan, "and I'll see that you get an invitation." Accordingly, on the night of March 17th, the banquet at which the Secretary of State spoke was graced by the presence of his coachman, who was conspicuously placed, not only at the table, but on the programme; for, being a guest of honor and bearing the name of "Barry," which takes alphabetical precedence over "Bryan" and "Belmont," for instance, the coachman found that lo! his name led all the rest!

The conscientiousness of the man is unbelievable. Only his capacity for work makes it possible to execute the duties he lays upon himself. His labors as a campaigner will never be matched. I have myself been on the train with Mr. Bryan when he made an average of fifteen speeches a day for the best part of a week, and this is not an unusual record. So far as I know, his hardest day's work was done in Missouri during the close of the campaign of 1908; starting from St. Joseph at four o'clock in the morning, Mr. Bryan concluded his thirty-second speech at half past one o'clock on the following morning. By midnight the newspaper correspondents were to a man utterly worn out. One or two of them heard the beginning of his last speech, which was made in the open air, as most of the others had been, and which was expected to last five or ten minutes. Mr. Bryan actually spoke an hour and a half with undiminished power. A few hundred men had waited up for him, and he gave them his best.

Another day's work of that campaign, however, taxed Mr. Bryan's strength to the limit of his endurance. Starting from Rock Island, having had no sleep at all the night before on account of continued conferences, the candidate journeyed across Iowa, traveling by trolley and steam, making twenty-two speeches before he reached the end of his programme. He saw to it that the correspondents on the train were snugly provided for in Pullmans, and then disappeared. A little later his secretary found him stretched out on a hard seat of a wretched car at the back of the train. He was utterly exhausted, but had not failed to see everybody else comfortably in bed before he fell down to his own comfortless rest.

Of his public labors, everybody knows; of the long hours at his desk, the public knows nothing. At the close of the campaign of 1896, after the staff of correspondents had departed from Lincoln, he found that there still remained unanswered 60,000 letters. Every one of these was answered, with Mrs. Bryan's help. It took the two of them a year and a half.

An instance of Mr. Bryan's conscientiousness was afforded a friend who once found him working over-time signing several hundred photographs which had been sent in for his autograph. Near by sat his brother, Mr. Charles Bryan, idly scribbling a signature which an expert could not have told had not been written by "William J. Bryan." The suggestion that Mr. Charles Bryan's aid would greatly facilitate the writing of those autographs provoked an indignant response from Mr. Bryan.

IV

The word that describes Mr. Bryan is *simplicity*. He is that quality incarnate. He might be a character imagined by Dickens — whose characters are traits, characteristics, qualities, personified. Mr. Bryan is *simpleness* personified. His heart is simple, and his mind is simple, almost obvious. His moral strength is the singleness of his conscience, the definiteness with which, shaking off accidents and complications, it sees, laid bare, the core of the matter, the issue between right and wrong. There abides the greatness

and lovableness of the man. His popularity lies in the corresponding simplicity of his mind; its instinct to restrict itself to primitive truths—some would call them commonplaces. His mind does not range. It has no fancy for exploring. It rests well content in the land of everyday things. So do the minds of the vast majority of us. He has a warm imagination and a tendency toward florid imagery, the most impressive stage presence Americans have ever seen, the most wonderful voice that ever fell upon ravished ears, and an unerring understanding of the mind of the common man — because it is his own.

William J. Bryan has a democratic mind; he will no more allow himself to become a mental aristocrat than a social one. Emerson, Longfellow, Mrs. Hemans, Luise Mühlbach, are good enough for him. He has no desire to sample outside the staple authors who have endeared themselves to the common people. He is no Brahmin. He affects no knowledge of art, the drama, the opera, or advanced literature. He owes nothing to Bernard Shaw, Maeterlinck, Hauptmann, Hardy, Ibsen, Nietzsche, Schopenhauer, Amiel, Royce, James, Bergson, not even to Wilson's masters, Burke, Bagehot, to Wordsworth or Lamb. The exception is Tolstoi, to whom he was drawn by the Russian's literal idea of the Christian life.

His own nearest approach to the writing of literature was his "Reply to Letters from a Chinese Official," in which he argues the superiority of Christian over pagan civilization with a gravity which appears a trifle over-literal when we know that the "Chinese Official's" letters were a hoax. Besides, Mr. Bryan has written a travel book. He tells the story of his journey around the world in a chronicle which faithfully records every movement and extends due thanks for every courtesy received from consuls and fellow-travelers. The book contains much valuable statistical information and is illustrated with photographs of the Bryans, on shipboard and camel-back, standing by the Pyramids, in Japanese gardens, and at the entrance to Buddhist temples. It is repeatedly stated that the scenery is fine; at one point it must have been, for the author notes that its magnificence is such that it inspired the sacred lines:

> What though the spicy breezes
> Blow soft o'er Ceylon's isle,
> Where every prospect pleases
> And only man is vile.

It is the narrative of a simple-hearted traveler, written for his neighbors at home, unsophisticated, unpretending.

His mind is not only democratic; his mental habit is curiously humble. He quotes like a school-boy. No platitude is so undeniable but he likes to adduce authority for it. "Jefferson states," "Emerson tells us" — what they tell us is that all men are created equal or that the dreams of one generation become the accepted facts of another.

"An eminent Swiss, Mr. Carl Hilty, declares that regular employment at some work which satisfies the conscience and the judgment is essential to any true enjoyment of life." Why drag in Hilty? We should as soon take William J. Bryan's word for it as Hilty's. I adduce this noticeable habit as a striking evidence of the simplicity and humility of his mental processes.

The figures which fill his historic imagination are such as those of Napoleon, Demosthenes, Nero, David and Elijah, and, first of all, Jesus of Nazareth. He draws his allusions from American history, the French Revolution, and a few well-tried and perfectly good classical subjects, like Scylla and Charybdis. And from the Bible. Mr. Bryan's speeches and writings are crammed with Biblical quotations, allusions, and illustrations. He talks about Belshazzar's Feast; about Naboth's Vineyard. "Mene, mene, tekel, upharsin!" he cries with impressive emphasis. He goes about the country delivering lectures, on what subjects? "The Prince of Peace;" "Thou Shalt Not Steal;" "Is the Young Man Absalom Safe?" "The Price of a Soul;" "Character;" "Faith;" "Missions." Including these addresses in volumes of his speeches, he puts under each one the notice:

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Mr. Bryan has been addicted to Biblical

quotations all his life. Mrs. Bryan tells of the manner in which he asked for her hand. The time having come when it was appropriate that a pointed conversation should take place with her father, the young man began thus:

"Mr. Baird, I have been reading Proverbs a good deal lately, and I find that Solomon says: 'Whoso findeth a wife, findeth a good thing and obtaineth favor of the Lord.'"

"Yes," Mary Baird's father replied, "But Paul suggests that while he that marrieth doeth well, he that marrieth not doeth better."

Dismayed only for a brief moment, the aspiring youth rejoined:

"Paul may have said that, but surely Solomon would be the better authority on this point, because Paul never married."

I have no doubt that Mr. Bryan's hold on the people is due in large part to his habitual use of Scriptural illustration. It is ceasing to be true; it has already ceased to be true in Eastern cities; but the people of the United States still know the Bible and are deeply affected by references to it. The East does not understand how great a part the pulpit and the Chautauqua platform play in the West, nor how much Mr. Bryan's influence derives from the fact that he is the best known preacher of righteousness throughout vast sections of the land.

Mr. Bryan is a deeply pious man. He holds family worship daily. He says grace at every meal — at dinner his family audibly join in the words of thanks. He has never been heard to use a profane nor an indelicate word, and such is the irradiance of his character that he never hears one. He does not, literally, know one card from another. He does not know the taste of liquor nor tobacco. Finally, he gives away, for charitable and religious purposes, more than he keeps for himself and his family. This is out of a chapter which may not be written during Mr. Bryan's lifetime, but the statement is true.

Yet this total abstainer admits that he once proposed to drink wine — under a certain condition. In Japan, at a dinner at which the health of Admiral Togo was being drunk, Mr. Bryan's glass was observed to contain only water. "You must drink the health in champagne!" exclaimed one of the banqueters across the table. "No," Mr. Bryan quickly replied, "your Japanese heroes won their victories drinking water; I am drinking their health in water. When you win victories on champagne, I will drink your health in champagne."

His theology is of the old-fashioned variety. "Evolution" to him still means the descent of man from the ape. His batteries are never silent against "the materialist who is endeavoring to drive God out of the universe." He is strong on foreign missions. He is not ashamed to adhere to the religion of miracle, of salvation through the blood of the Saviour, and to preach it in public and private, with the zeal of an apostle.

His philosophy of life is as simple as his theological faith. The world is a great and serious place, but after all, living in it is a perfectly plain matter. Right is right, and wrong is wrong. Choose you this day whom ye will serve. If the Lord be God, follow him; but if Baal, then follow him. To this disciple of the Lord everything is clear — the path of duty in private life, the assurance of immortality, the problems of the currency, of the tariff, and of international politics. I really suppose Mr. Bryan never had a religious nor a political doubt.

He sees simply — sees everything in a definiteness, a distinctness, which to other observers it does not possess — sees everything in its idea, its elementary essence, as a Platonist might say. He visualizes like a child or a primitive man: that is a house, and this is a tree; that is Imperialism and this is the Money Power. A word or a phrase possesses no connotations; it holds but a single, unchanging meaning; and, above all, it has its definite moral assessment in the world of things. There is "Wall Street" — not a phrase including, to be sure, the idea of great and manifold financial functions, but mainly suggestive of power often opposed to the general welfare; no, nothing like that. "Wall Street," for Mr. Bryan, is as definitely, as vividly, a personification of evil as Apollyon was to Bunyan's hero.

These are the "privileged classes". They stand apart, easily distinguished, from the "masses." See them. Count them. The idea that the masses and the classes pass into each other does not suggest itself. Everywhere, for Mr. Bryan's literal mind, there are great gulfs fixed. He is not influenced, his judgments are not rendered less positive, by any suspicion that things may, after all, be just a little complex. He is detained by no conception of life and history as the resultant of confused and warring currents, involved motives, conflicting duties, unconscious ironies; he is disturbed by no consciousness of the bewildering contradictions of struggle and passion in which the world-travail works itself out. A simple man, all is simple to him.

And does it need to be said how tremendous a power over the people is this faculty of simple vision? No Amiel ever led a people. Too much thought paralyzes in the world of action; only he who sees simply will smite. The simple man is the confident man.

About the time of the announcement of the Administration's attitude toward the Chinese loan, I had an opportunity of chatting with the Secretary of State. It seemed to him that there could be only one possible stand for Democrats to take in the matter; it was wonderful to him that anybody could think the question worth discussing. There were two kinds of people in the world: aristocrats and democrats. There were two theories of government: the aristocratic and the democratic. On the democratic theory of government, there were four reasons which forbade the United States from backing the bankers who wanted to lend money to China. Mr. Bryan ran off the four reasons on his fingers. That was all there was to the Chinese question. It reduced to the simple issue between aristocracy and democracy. He was conscious of no complications, no qualifications, no side considerations. I am not questioning the justice of Mr. Bryan's conclusion. I agree with it, for that matter. But I am commenting *on the simplicity* of the grounds *on which he reached it.*

It is a rare and priceless quality — simplicity. Perhaps it is an adequate, as well as an unusual, equipment for a Minister of Foreign Affairs.

All this can be said about Mr. Bryan without the slightest suggestion of disparagement. In the presence of the God-like power which the thousands at Baltimore saw wielded — surely the most magnificent human spectacle this generation has witnessed — what matters it that the orator is not a speculative philosopher? When one is talking of one of the Boanerges or a Chrysostom, it is to pick no flaw in his genius to remark that he is not a connoisseur of mezzotints or a member of the Browning Society. Mr. Bryan could not be what he is — and be otherwise than he is; he could not have the power of his sublime simplicity and still be a sophisticated member of genteel, commonplace society. Nature, to make him a Bryan, has miraculously shielded him from the diverting, complicating temptations of culture, as a saint is shielded by divine grace from the temptations of the world, the flesh, and the devil. Mr. Bryan is a modern monk.

His literal belief in the Bible, his innocence of artistic culture, his lack of interest in aught but well-approved literature, his indifference to social distinctions — all these things are the other face of that supreme moral simplicity which is the secret of his power over his great army of followers—a power greater, probably, than any other man has ever wielded in the history of our country.

V

Mr. Bryan confesses that he had looked forward with considerable fear to the taking of office. He had not held office for many years. He had lost, if he had ever had, the office habit. He was used to being in the opposition. But he has found it most delightful. He has found it a very great satisfaction to be associated with a man like Mr. Wilson, a man of clear mind, definite thoughts, and precise speech. Mr. Bryan speaks warmly of the delights of the Cabinet meetings, which are conducted in the spirit of the utmost freedom and candor, but where

Wilson's nomination at Baltimore. Nonplussed, the darkey asked a white friend:

"Who dat Marse Wilson de Democrats runnin' for Pres*ident?* I had idee old Marse Bryan mos' ginahly run."

"Yes," said Mr. Bryan, "it takes a man a little while to break his old habits and turn around. I was talking the other day with the working force of the *Commoner*, and I said that they might possibly have noticed some slight change in the policy of the paper. Heretofore, we had been 'agin' the Government, but we had now about concluded to support the Government — it seemed to be behaving itself of late, pretty well, on the whole."

Then Mr. Bryan told a story of an editor who had been persuaded to see the light on the subject of the Philippines. He was in great mental distress, as he wished to bring his paper around without stultifying himself. Finally, he achieved a new point of view and immediately sat down and wrote a long editorial which he brought triumphantly to Mr. Bryan, exclaiming: "How's this for a starter!"

MR. BRYAN IN 1883

WHEN HE BEGAN TO PRACTISE LAW IN JACKSONVILLE, *ILLINOIS*

WHERE MR. BRYAN WAS BORN

THIS HOUSE IN SALEM, ILL., IS LITTLE CHANGED FROM WHAT IT WAS 53 YEARS AGO

Mr. Bryan's "starter" was the renouncing of the Dollar Diplomacy in the Far East; it is a mistake to credit the President alone with the termination of that policy.

Soon after he had entered on his new office, I asked Mr. Bryan if he felt at home in it. "Your interests," I said, "have appeared to be chiefly in questions of internal policy. Now that you have to deal with questions of external policy, as Minister of Foreign Affairs, do you feel that you are in rather a new field?"

"Not at all," was his reply. And then, characteristically, "The principles upon which foreign questions must be dealt with are precisely the same as those which govern in dealing with internal questions. There are no moral principles applying to groups other than those that apply to individuals. For instance, if you ask me whether I believe in the command, Thou shalt not steal, I answer yes, without asking what the amount involved is. The amount is not material when there is a principle involved."

"Nor is the character of the parties involved, I suppose?"

"Exactly. It does not matter whether they are individuals or governments. And so, I find nothing new in the problems

S RESIDENCE IN JACKSONVILLE, ILL.
OUSE IN WHICH HE AND MRS. BRYAN FIRST MADE THEIR HOME

ternational relations. The same rules enable a man to live peaceably with neighbors can be applied to nations, they will enable nations to live peace- with each other."

earing Mr. Bryan say it so confidently, the superb lift of the head and the hetic fire in his magnificent eye, one ved it — for a moment.

But is that quite an accurate account he matter?" I did manage to say. private life we have courts to which re forced to go to settle our quarrels. nternational life, there are no tri- ls before which nations can be haled." was saying that the rules that apply een individuals, applied between ns, would enable them to live in e. I was speaking of normal condi- . Of course, war cannot be con- ed a normal condition. (Mr. Bryan ed a slight lack of humor.) I was king of normal conditions and rela- and of questions that ordinarily up for consideration; the more ctly you can apply to international rs the moral principles that govern viduals, the less likely you are to have You do not need any new or dif- t moral code."

e new Secretary of State is not an cate of international arbitration. Do you object to it?" I asked him.

"Not at all. I am willing to go as far with arbitration as you can go, but I recognize that you cannot go farther than you can. No matter what you might say about what ought to be done, you have to do what the people are ready to do. You cannot move faster than the people. At this time it is impossible to have arbitration for all questions, and it is impossible to let anybody decide what questions can be submitted to arbitration. That is the trouble with all arbitration treaties; it was the trouble with those the last Administration worked on. You agree to arbitrate everything except questions of national integrity and honor. In the heat of a disagreement every question seems to involve the national honor. Who is going to decide that?"

Mr. Bryan has what he thinks is an original plan for the preservation of peace. As far back as 1905 he proposed it, at a dinner in Tokio, and the following June he laid it before a London conference at which twenty-six nations were represented.

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MR. BRYAN AS EDITOR
OUTSIDE THE OFFICE OF THE "COMMONER" IN LINCOLN, NEB.

MR. BRYAN'S FORMER RESIDENCE AT LINCOLN, NEB.

The plan proposes, not arbitration, but investigation — compulsory investigation, with world publicity. The gist of the idea is that wars that can be delayed till passions cool are not likely ever to be fought; and that when impartial inquiry

THE DINING ROOM OF THE BRYAN HOUSE AT LINCOLN

"FAIRVIEW," THE BRYAN FARM AND HOME, NEAR LINCOLN

has informed the world of the rights and wrongs of an international dispute, the world conscience, without any formal court, will reach and make felt a verdict that no nation would dare oppose.

Mr. Taft's peace programme included

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WHERE MR. BRYAN'S GUESTS USED TO SMOKE

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MRS. BRYAN

AS BEEN MR. BRYAN'S INTELLECTUAL COMRADE IN ALL HIS POLITICAL CAREER

MR. BRYAN'S ARRIVAL AT THE DEMOCRATIC CONVENTION AT BALTIMORE

WHERE HE DOMINATED A GATHERING THAT WAS DIVIDED BY FACTIONAL BITTERNESS AND WELDED IT INTO A COHERENT ORGANIZATION PLEDGED TO A PROGRESSIVE CANDIDATE AND A PROGRESSIVE PLATFORM

this idea (for which he gave the Democrat credit) but left the investigation to be invoked by either party.

"That is not sufficient," said Mr. Bryan, "inasmuch as when excited neither party might ask for it, for fear it might be

MR. BRYAN AND HIS SECRETARY, "BOB" ROSE

WHOSE DEVOTION TO HIS CHIEF IS TYPICAL OF THE AFFECTIONATE LOYALTY THAT THE SECRETARY OF STATE HAS AROUSED IN MILLIONS OF AMERICAN CITIZENS

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MRS. BRYAN

WHO HAS BEEN MR. BRYAN'S INTELLECTUAL COMRADE IN ALL HIS POLITICAL CAREER

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MR. BRYAN IN EGYPT ON HIS TRIP AROUND THE WORLD IN 1908

regarded as an indication of weakness or of unwillingness to stand by what they believed to be their rights. It ought to be provided for as a matter of course, so that it will not depend upon the request of either party, and all nations should be

SIGHTSEEING IN MEXICO

bound by an agreement to submit these questions before declaring war or commencing hostilities.

"The investigation should be held by a body which would make a report, a reasonable time being given in which the report could be made, and it would be proper to stipulate that there would be no change by either party during this time; that is, that a party shall take no advantage of the delay materially to alter its strength.

"Such an agreement ought to be made with every other nation, putting us therefore in the attitude of extending the same offer to every nation, big or little, and my own conviction is that if this Nation entered into such an agreement with other nations, it would practically end war. I doubt if there would be another war.

"The sort of treaty I suggest would be an announcement that the time has come when civilized nations cannot begin shooting at each other until the cause of the shooting has been investigated and announced to the world. It would give an opportunity for the operations of all the peace forces of the world and time for public opinion to act. When a man is mad, he talks about what he can do; when he is calm, he talks about what he ought to do. This plan does not require that you surrender this right to decide for yourself what is a question of national honor; it provides for nothing but investigation and publicity and reserves the right to act independently afterward. That right will never be exercised unless the cause will stand investigation and publicity."

THE CELEBRATION OF MR. BRYAN'S RETURN TO AMERICA IN 1908

FROM HIS TRIP AROUND THE WORLD, WHEN THOUSANDS OF PEOPLE FROM ALL PARTS OF THE UNITED STATES CAME TO NEW YORK TO JOIN IN AN ENTHUSIASTIC RECEPTION THAT FORECAST HIS THIRD NOMINATION FOR THE PRESIDENCY BY THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY

Mr. Bryan reminded me that he had long been an advocate of reform in the diplomatic service. Nine years ago he began to advocate the building of embassies. He did this for two reasons:

"First, we ought to have no department of the Government which is not open to all its people who are qualified to fill the offices. Money should not be a necessary qualification. Second, and of equal importance, in a way, we should be able to control the manner of living of those who

THE BRYAN RESIDENCE IN WASHINGTON

FORMERLY THE HOME OF THE WIDOW OF GENERAL JOHN A. LOGAN, LEASED BY MR. BRYAN FOR USE DURING HIS TERM AS SECRETARY OF STATE

represent us in order that they may not misrepresent us before the world and in order that rich men may not embarrass us."

"You would make it obligatory upon the ambassador to live in the house provided?"

"Certainly. We should build and furnish the place, and the expenditures of our representative should be limited, if not expressly, by an understanding, in order that it may be clear that this country does not authorize or even permit its representatives to ape the extravagances of the old world."

I asked Mr. Bryan if his devotion to democracy as the ideal principle of governments inspired him with any definite aims that might properly be exercised in the field of our foreign relations. He replied, I thought with unusual warmth:

"A government cannot, of course, interfere with the internal affairs of another. But it can set up an example. A man — and a nation — is responsible for his or its example, although under no obligation to try to make others conform to it. But the effect of example is often underestimated, *and* I shall be disappointed if the *democratic example set by this* Administration does not have a larger influence toward the progress of democracy on other nations."

Few men could have gone through Mr. Bryan's experiences and come out of them with the mellow sweetness of temper which he shows to-day. His face is fuller than of old, so that it is unlikely that he can still whisper in his own ear, but his easily kindled smile is an engulfing performance and the warming kindliness of his glance is a lay benediction. There is nowhere about him a trace of jealousy or disappointment. He seems to love stories of which he is the victim. When last year his admirers were urging him to stand for the nomination again he used to take refuge in this narrative:

"A certain cowboy came into town one night, and having got pretty well exhilarated, made his way into the dance-hall. He made himself obnoxious, and was led to the door. But he returned, went in again, and repeated the performance; this time he was dragged to the door and pushed out into the street. He returned a third time, however, whereupon he was kicked across the hall, hit over the head with chairs, and flung headlong into the gutter. When

ame to himself and had got the sand of his mouth and the blood out of his , he was heard to say: 'They can't me. I know what's the matter. They t want me in there.'"

e is always finding occasion to joke it his unhappy experiences. Even n he was in Japan, in the course of a ch acknowledging the hospitalities ad there received, he observed that ad been "tenderly drawn toward the eror of Japan because when his Maj- had established the chrysanthemum e imperial emblem, he had drawn the r with sixteen petals, thus giving the st Oriental sanction to the doctrine ixteen to one.'"

e speaks without malice of such treat- t even as that one night handed out to by Governor Thayer, of Nebraska. Mr. ver, long his political enemy, was pre- g at a non-partisan mass meeting at h Mr. Bryan was to appear. When Bryan took his place on the platform Governor pretended not to recognize and asked his name. The reply was lliam Jennings Bryan." "Oh, Mr. n," said the chairman, "I am glad to you. Do you speak or sing?"

a much earlier occasion, when he indeed unknown, Mr. Bryan was given an amusing introduction to an audience. He was just out of school. A Democratic meeting was being held in the public square at Jacksonville, Ill. The scheduled speakers were slow in arriving, and the crowd grew impatient. Someone on the platform suggested to the chairman, a venerable citizen of the town, that there was present a young man who was making a name as an orator, and that he be called on to fill up the time. The young man consented. "How shall I introduce him?" whispered the chairman. "Oh, just say that we will now hear William J. Bryan, a rising attorney of this place." The chairman turned to the audience, obtained silence, and announced: "We will now have the pleasure of listening to William Rising Bryan, a jay attorney of this city."

To-day the thrice-defeated candidate who has come to Washington to sit at the right hand of the new Democratic President is telling these stories, and a score like them, with great glee. His favorite hero, I think, is a farmer whom he calls John, who had just heard from the girl of his choice that she returned his love. John went to the front door, opened it, went out, stood looking up at the stars, and said, "Oh! Lord, I hain't got nothin' against nobody no more."

AT PRESIDENT WILSON'S INAUGURATION

ETING AMBASSADOR JAMES BRYCE, OF *GREAT BRITAIN*, AND ESCORTING MRS. BRYAN THROUGH THE CROWD

WHAT I AM TRYING TO DO

HELPING TO MAKE NEW YORK A CLEANER, MORE HEALTHFUL, MORE BEAUTIFUL, AND GREATER CITY

BY

GEORGE McANENY

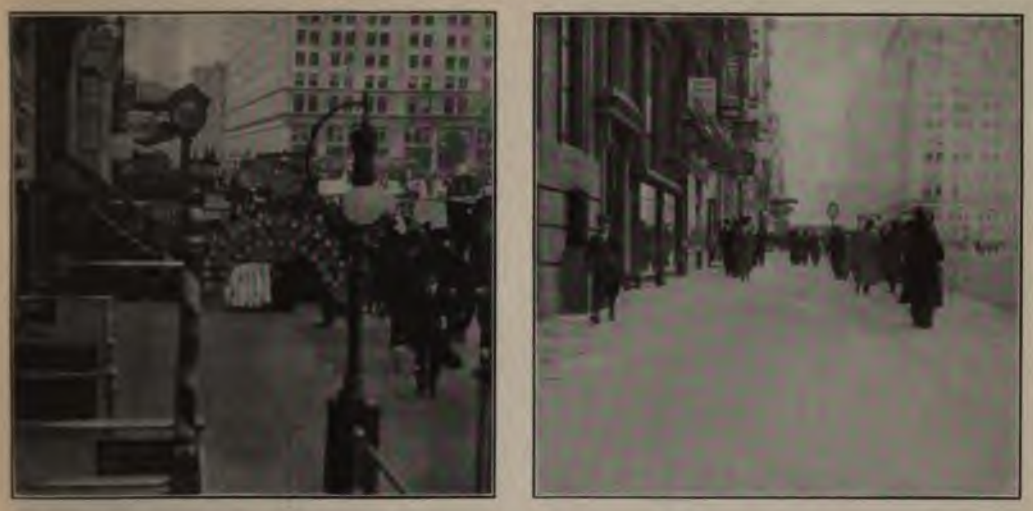
(PRESIDENT OF THE BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN)

BEFORE any one can get a true appreciation of the task of those who conduct the government of New York City and plan its improvements, he must have some grasp of what New York really is and really means — the territory it covers, the immensity and variety of its population, the traffic on its railways, the amount of money that it spends in a year, and all the rest of it. Most of us have read statistics about the city, at one time or another, but these are likely to be quickly forgotten. And the significance of them is necessarily lost upon thousands of people, far away, to whom they are mere colorless figures. Some comparisons and contrasts may serve as a starting point for the man who wants to understand what is being done to make New York a more healthful, a cleaner, a more beautiful, and a still greater city.

The Federal Census of 1910 gave New York City a population of 4,766,883 —

MR. GEORGE McANENY

PRESIDENT OF THE BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN, NEW YORK CITY, WHOSE WORK TO HELP ORGANIZE THE *BUSINESS ACTIVITIES* OF THE CITY ON A BUSINESS BASIS HAS PLACED HIM AMONG THE FOREMOST CONSTRUCTIVE *MUNICIPAL* ADMINISTRATORS IN THE UNITED STATES



RECLAIMING SIDEWALKS TO THE USE OF THE PUBLIC

TWO VIEWS, FROM THE SAME POINT, ON EAST TWENTY-THIRD STREET, NEW YORK, BEFORE AND AFTER THE PRIVATE OBSTRUCTIONS TO TRAFFIC WERE REMOVED AT MR. McANENY'S SUGGESTION. THIS WORK, WHICH HAS BEEN DONE ALL OVER THE CITY, HAS RESTORED TO THE PUBLIC MILLIONS OF DOLLARS' WORTH OF PROPERTY

SIGNING THE CONTRACTS FOR THE NEW SUBWAY

THAT WILL HELP TO RELIEVE THE CONGESTION OF PASSENGER TRAFFIC UP AND DOWN MANHATTAN ISLAND AND BETWEEN *MANHATTAN* AND BROOKLYN

A BUILDING THAT HOUSES A CITY

THE WOOLWORTH BUILDING, IN NEW YORK, THAT WILL BE THE WORKING QUARTERS OF 10,000 PEOPLE TO CARRY WHOM TO THEIR HOMES WOULD REQUIRE THE USE OF ALL THE SUBWAY TRAINS THAT COULD SAFELY LEAVE THE NEAREST STATION DURING FIFTEEN MINUTES. DOZENS OF OTHER GIANT SKYSCRAPERS IN THE SAME DISTRICT SEND THEIR OCCUPANTS TO THE TRAINS AT THE SAME HOUR

more by about half a million than the population of Virginia and North Carolina combined. The Department of Health's *estimate of the city's present population is 5,372,983.*

Opposite the Post Office, on lower Broadway, there has just been completed a building, 780 feet high, which will provide working quarters for 10,000 people. If all the men and women employed in this one "skyscraper" should attempt to go uptown by the subway at the end of the day it would take the ten-car express trains, running at the intervals now established, fifteen minutes to haul them away. Though this happens to be the highest structure in the city, there are others nearly as large; it is one of dozens that accommodate four or five thousand people each and one of hundreds that accommodate more than a thousand people each. The number of these great buildings is steadily growing

In the year that ended on June 30, 1912, the surface, elevated, and underground railway companies of the city collected 1,622,979,709 passenger fares, or 4,446,000 a day. The number of passengers carried in a year on all the steam railroads of the United States is about 1,000,000,000, which is less than New York's local passenger traffic by about 623,000,000.

The total traffic of all the city lines increased 71,000,000 between 1911 and 1912, and the figures now available show that the increase between 1912 and 1913 will be just as great or greater.

The assessed valuation of taxable real estate in New York is $8,006,647,000, an increase of $5,543,512,000 in the fifteen years that have passed since the Greater City was created. The city's net "constitutional" funded debt — after deducting the bonds held in the sinking fund and the self-supporting rapid transit, dock, and water bonds — is $563,313,501.

The city's budget for 1913, as already made up and printed, amounts to $192,711,000. (The Belgian Government spends about $130,000,000 a year.) This is for running expenses — education, health, police protection, maintenance of parks and streets, interest on the debt, and so forth — and does not include capital expenditures through bonds issued for permanent improvements.

In the fifteen years between January 1, 1898, and January 1, 1913, the appropria-

THE BEGINNINGS OF A CIVIC CENTRE FOR NEW YORK CITY

THE NEW MUNICIPAL BUILDING IN THE BACKGROUND, THE HALL OF RECORDS TO THE LEFT OF IT, AND THE OLD CITY HALL IN THE CENTRE OF THE PARK

tions for public improvements — not included in running expenses — amounted to $797,200,000, divided as follows:

Water supply	$149,600,000
Rapid transit subways	93,100,000
Schools, colleges, and libraries	108,000,000
Other public buildings	69,250,000
Docks and ferries	84,250,000
Bridges and bridge approaches	90,000,000
New streets, roads, and sewers	148,000,000
Parks, driveways, recreation grounds	30,000,000
Other municipal improvements	25,000,000

It would be possible to go on stringing out figures of this kind indefinitely, but these will suffice for my purpose. And it would indeed be idle to present them in any spirit of boastfulness, for the greatness of New York is the product of natural conditions and economic forces far beyond the control of any of us. These few statistics are useful here only in that they reflect the size and seriousness of the problems which the people of the city, through their representatives, have to face and solve.

"What *we* are trying to do" would seem a more fitting title for this subject, for no one who has a part in the city government can fail to realize how much his work is interwoven with that of his associates and how essential it is that, if the work is to be done successfully, they must all pull together. Yet every one has

A SUGGESTION OF NEW YORK'S TRANSIT PROBLEM

CROWDS CLIMBING THE STAIRS TO THE ELEVATED RAILROAD, ENTERING THE KIOSKS TO DESCEND TO THE SUBWAY, AND BOARDING THE SURFACE CARS IN CITY HALL PARK. MORE THAN 4 MILLION PASSENGERS USE THE TRACTION LINES EVERY DAY, TO TRAVEL TO BROOKLYN, UPTOWN MANHATTAN, AND THE BRONX

pecial functions and his special ac-
ies, and so I shall undertake to
ibe briefly in the following pages
: of those municipal undertakings
which I have had most to do. In
Board of Estimate and Apportion-
:, the city already has a modified
of "commission government." The
d is composed of the mayor, the comp-
:r, the president of the board of
men, and the presidents of the five
ughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn, the
x, Queens, and Richmond. Each
ese officers is elected by the people,
each has separate executive powers
endent of those of any of the rest.
ctively, and under the constant
hfulness and guidance of public opin-
they hold the city's purse-strings and
prize the expenditure of its money.
all questions that arise, the first
of the officials named have three
each. The presidents of Man-
n and Brooklyn have two votes each,
he presidents of the other boroughs
ach, making sixteen votes in all.
xpenses of all departments and the
ys for all improvements have to pass
crutiny of this board and of a corps
erts in its service. In it rests also
wer of granting franchises.
e Borough of Manhattan — which
up most of the old City of New York
2,400,000 people, or nearly half
opulation of the consolidated city,
perhaps three quarters of its wealth
l estate. Directly in charge of the
gh president, an independent elec-
officer, elected by the borough vote
, are the various bureaus of public
s and the bureau of buildings. The
r have to do with the laying and
taining of pavements; keeping the
thoroughfares cleared of obstruc-
; mapping sewers, water mains, vaults,
ubsurface conditions in general; and
onstruction and care of public build-
nd offices, public baths, and markets.
ureau of buildings passes upon the
for all new buildings and alterations
sees that the laws governing these
are carried out properly. The total
er of employees under the president
nhattan is about 3,000.

First, before telling of what I have tried to do as borough president, I purpose to discuss one or two phases of my work as a member of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Necessarily, most of the business of the board is transacted by committees. It has fallen to my lot to serve upon a number of these — the budget committee, the corporate stock budget committee, which controls the use of the city's credit, and others. I have, however, been particularly fortunate in serving as chairman of various committees that have had to do more particularly with matters that come under the head of what I may even call my hobby — city planning. This, to me, has always been an absorbing subject. I do not use the phrase in its narrower sense of the mere laying out of parks and streets and boulevards, but in its larger significance as the science of directing the actual building and growth of a city along proper and rational lines. The formation of a rapid transit railway plan that will spread the population of a city among outlying sections and yet keep it close to the centres in point of time; the logical arrangement of streets and other public spaces; the clearing away of obstructions to traffic; the regulation of the height, size, and general arrangement of buildings to the end that dangerous congestion may be stopped and the appearance of the city saved; the creation of parks and playgrounds and public baths and hospitals — these are all included in city planning, and, as I see it, they constitute the main concern of the leaders in the government of New York City at the present time.

Fundamental, of course, in such undertakings, is the prudent expenditure of the city's funds. Whatever vast visions we may have of the New York of the future, or of schemes for its rebuilding and rearrangement, the virtue of knowing how not to use dollars as well as how to use them can never lose its importance. The task is to spend and be economical at the same time; to strike a just balance between constant development on the one hand and canny thrift on the other; and it is a task that calls for the most thorough

training and the deepest sense of responsibility that any group of men may possess.

The chairmanship of the "committee on transit proposals," upon which President Miller of the Bronx and President Cromwell of Richmond served with me, has been, I suppose, the most important of my board of estimate assignments. It was in that capacity that I took part in the drafting of the subway contracts that were signed last March. A proposal from the Interborough Rapid Transit Company for the building and operation of various extensions of the present subway system, the cost to be borne partly by the city and partly by the company, was presented to the Public Service Commission on December 5, 1910. Two weeks later this proposal was sent to the Board of Estimate with the statement that, subject to certain modifications, the Commission was prepared to accept it. Under the law, both bodies must approve before contracts for either construction or operation of transit lines become effective. As some of the members of the Board of Estimate believed that a better solution could be reached through further negotiations, my committee was appointed to confer with the Public Service Commission in the matter, and the contracts finally presented were the result of the joint efforts of the Committee and the Commission, headed by its chairman, Mr. Willcox.

We entered these conferences fully realizing that the city needed better transit facilities and needed them immediately. But, also, we had to look to the future, to find a solution that would be lasting and not a makeshift. I can say with profound conviction that I believe the real solution has been found. The existing subway system and the great system of elevated railway lines in Brooklyn, with a combined trackage of 181 miles, have been used as nuclei in the laying out of the so-called "Dual Plan," which will comprise 494 miles of track. The expanded Manhattan Elevated system will bring the total track mileage of rapid transit lines to 614. With the old and new lines linked, the population of Greater New York gains the benefit of an almost universal five-cent fare, and the way is laid for city expansion upon a scale not hitherto deemed possible.

In order to provide an outlet for congestion at the centre of the city, many lines will run into the more sparsely developed sections where real opportunities for comfortable home-building exist and where for some years to come railroading upon a purely commercial basis cannot pay. The Interborough Company, at the beginning, had proposed that it retain all the fares collected upon its present lines, and that the city stand the losses on all the new ones. The company holds the present subway lines under a 50-year lease, with the privilege of a 25-year renewal, and they can not be taken away from it. In order to get the complete system it desired, not simply for commercial return but for the purposes of city-building, the city's representatives demanded that the receipts from both old and new lines should be pooled, and that the city, moreover, should retain the right to build other branches whenever it chose, and to add them to the system, virtually upon the same basis. As compensation for the value of its present leases, it was agreed that the company should retain annually out of the combined receipts the equivalent of the sum it earned two years ago. After that deduction, and after the payment of operating and interest charges, all further profit is to be divided equally between the company and the city. A similar arrangement was made with the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company.

For the current fiscal year, ending June 30, 1913, the net earnings of the Interborough Company will exceed by about $1,530,000 the preferred amount which the city is to allow. This excess will become still greater during the four years before the new lines can be put in operation, and every dollar of it means an advantage to the city under the pooling plan.

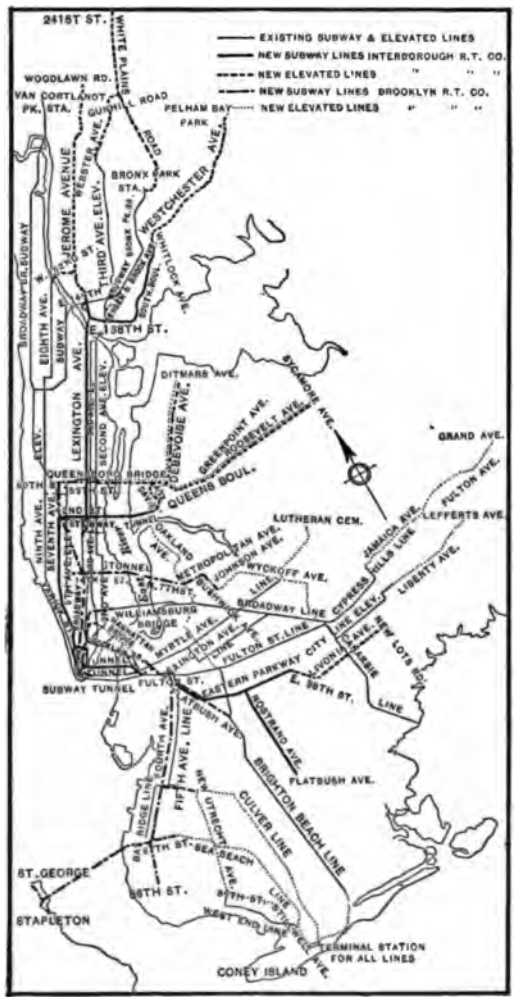
To build the new lines of the dual system, and to third-track and extend the Manhattan elevated lines as well, the great sum of $325,000,000 was required. As further consideration for their enlarged interest in the city's transit facilities, the city induced the Interborough Company

to provide $110,000,000 of this sum, and the Brooklyn Company $60,000,000, without further return to them than the payment of interest and sinking fund charges. As part of the bargain, the Interborough Company agreed to give to the city one half of the estimated 40 per cent. of increase in the net receipts of the Manhattan elevated lines. Both companies agreed to submit all their operations to the constant scrutiny of the city authorities, and to conform as well to whatever regulations the authorities might make governing the character and type of equipment, the fixing of schedules for train service, and operating methods in general.

Both municipal construction and absolute municipal ownership are assured. Title to every rod of the lines vests in the city from the beginning, and the city is to let all construction contracts. The companies merely pay over their contributions to the Comptroller as they are required. Finally, the city reserves the right to take over the new lines, or particular groups of them, after ten years, if it so likes, and is required merely in such an event to pay back the contributions of the companies on a diminishing scale, until at the end of the lease period of 49 years both the lines and equipment shall come to the city without the payment of a dollar.

I presume that a settlement of this sort would have been impossible ten years ago. That it is possible to-day is an evidence of the degree in which a municipality like New York is advancing in the recovery of its sovereign right, and in its capacity to serve the people upon a truly business basis.

The committee on the proper regulation of the "height, size and arrangement of buildings within the city limits," of which I am also chairman, has a work to perform scarcely less important than that of the transit committee. Although there are the minor regulations of the building code, affecting the details of construction, the owners of private property have been permitted to do about as they pleased with their ground areas. Buildings in lower Manhattan have gone to the height of forty and fifty stories. The latest and tallest of these, to which I have referred, will house 10,000 people. The problem of providing proper light and air and the ordinary sanitary facilities is becoming constantly more complicated, aside from the actual danger to life created by the constantly growing congestion. The city,



RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEM OF NEW YORK CITY

in short, is in grave danger of choking itself to death, unless some sensible regulation of the disposition of building areas is imposed.

The Board of Estimate's committee, under the authority given by the board, has associated with itself an advisory commission of experts, representing all the interests involved in the solution of this problem. This commission is hard

at work, and before long will no doubt recommend some feasible plan for the relief of what threatens to become an intolerable situation. Our object is not necessarily to forbid tall buildings, but to keep them within bounds; to stop the course of abnormal and artificial values upon lot areas in one small portion of the city, and through the enforced widening of building activity to bring about increases of value, and at the same time the offer of greater safety and comfort, in every other part of the city.

Under the authority of the Board of Estimate, which has supreme control of the city's streets, I have done what I could, in the capacity of Borough President, to relieve existing traffic conditions, as well as to improve the face of the town, by widening the roadways of practically all the 100-foot streets, such as Fifth Avenue, Forty-Second, Thirty-Fourth, Twenty-Third, and Fourteenth streets, and by removing the encroachments of private property upon the sidewalks. For three centuries, all manner of encroachments — stoops, porches, porticos, areaways, and even gardens—have projected upon the public's sidewalk space. In a test case brought several years ago, the courts held that the city retained the right to oust every trespasser of this sort; and under this decision I have proceeded with the clearing up of every street where congestion has become considerable. The engineers of my department tell me that the area recovered is equivalent to a continuous strip ten feet wide and thirteen miles long. The value of this property to the city is estimated at many millions. The widened streets are stately and beautiful, compared with the ragged streets of three or four years ago, and every one concedes, I think, that the aspect of the city has gained a new dignity.

The maintenance of the pavements is one of the most important functions of the Borough President's department, and the difficulties that it presents have become more and more serious with the rapid growth of automobile traffic and the introduction of immense automobile trucks. A conference of the consulting engineers of the five boroughs was called at my suggestion, and, with the advice and assistance of the leading outside experts on paving, we revised radically the old paving specifications. The result is that the quality of pavement has been improved, and at the same time bidders who were excluded by the old specifications have entered the field.

In the first three years of the present administration, from the beginning of 1910 to the end of 1912, 109 miles of new pavement were laid, divided as follows: 53 miles of sheet asphalt, 30 miles of granite block, 14 miles of wood block, and 12 miles of asphalt block. Forty-two miles of new pavement were laid in 1912, as against 25 miles in 1909, the last year of the previous administration. As an illustration of the economies effected, the cost of laying the surface and "binder" of sheet asphalt pavement is anywhere from 20 to 40 cents less per square yard than it was in 1909. A still more forcible comparison is that of repair costs. The cost of repairing the stone pavements in Manhattan fell from $500,000 in 1909 to $300,000 in 1912, though the total area repaired increased from 206,000 square yards in 1909 to 325,000 in 1912.

It has been my privilege, as a member of the corporate stock budget committee, to help select a site for the new "civic centre," in which our $10,000,000 courthouse is to be placed, and in which other city, state, and Federal buildings may be grouped. As custodian of the public buildings, I am restoring the old City Hall — the most beautiful building, I believe, in the possession of either this or any other American municipality. The restoration is following the original plans of the building, which we found the Historical Society had preserved. With the removal of the "Mullett post office," which is the acme of ugliness, and of the "Tweed court house," we shall have restored the historic common of the City of New York, with the City Hall its sole occupant, as it was a hundred years ago. The new "civic centre" will lie just north, beyond the great new Municipal Building, in which the city departments are soon to be housed. The "centre" will be developed upon a plan worthy of the position

of New York as one of the first capitals of the world.

Another of my committees has been that on the better coördination of the departments of health, charities, and hospitals. These are chief among what I might term the city's "welfare" departments. Liberal appropriations were made for their support in past administrations, and have been continued by this one. But there is a strong conviction in the board that in order to meet its own responsibility of appropriating wisely, it should insist upon better and more economical methods in some respects, and upon a much greater degree of attention to the preventive side of the city's health and social work. The heads of the departments concerned are coöperating in a most friendly way toward this end, and the results are beginning to count. Through the adjustment of appropriations in the last three years, the city is already spending far larger amounts than previously for medical inspection in the public schools; for infant milk stations; for the prevention of tuberculosis; for the proper care of convalescents discharged from the city hospitals; and for the better employment of others who through their personal misfortunes have become public charges.

One result of all this is that the annual death rate, which only twenty years ago was normally about 26 or 27 in a thousand, has been brought this year to 14. In one month of last fall it fell even lower.

At the instance of my committee, the legislature of two years ago passed an act creating the Public Recreation Commission, which is taking over the administration of the playgrounds, recreation piers, recreation fields, public baths, gymnasiums, and swimming pools, and encouraging the use of all of them. The number of swimming pools and gymnasiums in the public baths and elsewhere during the last two years has been doubled. The use of public schools as social centres, and the giving of free public concerts in the school buildings, are other innovations for which the present administration is responsible.

Under the new transit plan, Pelham Bay Park, on the Long Island Sound, may be reached from almost any part of the city — and Coney Island from anywhere south of 59th Street — for a five-cent fare. In these and in many other ways the people's money, placed in trust in the hands of the city's officers, is being spent for the benefit of the people.

That these things can be done without increase of cost, and merely through the application of the commonest rules of business administration, has been shown in the bureaus of the Borough of Manhattan and in many other branches of the city government. I found an appropriation of $3,000,000 provided to run the borough during the year 1910. Through the installation of up-to-date accounting, through the cutting out of waste wherever I found it, and through the employment of skilled and efficient heads of bureaus, in a single year this sum was reduced by 17 per cent. The greater part of the money thus saved was used for other purposes that had been neglected. The record of the two years of 1911 and 1912 tells a similar story. I was aided greatly at the outset by the Bureau of Municipal Research, which, though supported privately, has been placing its men at the service of practically all city departments that desire them. Those who through their private means have established this bureau have rendered great service not merely to the city but to the Nation.

Genuine progress is possible only with the realization by the city's officers of their duty to act in accordance with enlightened public opinion. Every effort has been made in New York in the last three years to give complete publicity to what the city administration is doing, and to enlist the active interest of the people. If the New York of the future is to have the great place it deserves among the cities of the world, the people must continue to look closely after their own affairs. They must insist that the responsibilities of the city government, as a business and social agency, shall continue to be met as we of the present administration have been trying, at least, to meet them.

THE NEW FREEDOM

A CALL FOR THE EMANCIPATION OF THE GENEROUS ENERGIES OF A PEOPLE

BY

WOODROW WILSON

VI

THE EMANCIPATION OF BUSINESS

IN THE readjustments that are about to be undertaken in this country not one single legitimate or honest arrangement is going to be disturbed; but every impediment to business is going to be removed, every illegitimate kind of control is going to be destroyed. Every man who wants an opportunity and has the energy to seize it, is going to be given a chance. All that we are going to ask the gentlemen who now enjoy monopolistic advantages to do is to match their brains against the brains of those who will then compete with them. The brains, the energy, of the rest of us are to be set free to go into the game, — that is all. There is to be a general release of the capital, the enterprise, of millions of people, a general opening of the doors of opportunity. With what a spring of determination, with what a shout of jubilance, will the people rise to their emancipation!

I am one of those who believe that we have had such restrictions upon the prosperity of this country that we have not yet come into our own, and that by removing those restrictions we shall set free an energy which in our generation has not been known. It is for that reason that I feel free to criticise with the utmost frankness these restrictions, and the means by which they have been brought about. I do not criticise as one without hope; in describing conditions which so hamper, impede, and imprison, I am only describing conditions from which we are going to escape into a contrasting age. I believe that this is a time when there should be unqualified frankness. One of the distressing circumstances of our day is this: I cannot tell you how many men of business, how many important men of business, have communicated their real opinions about the situation in the United States to me privately and confidentially. They are afraid of somebody. They are afraid to make their real opinions known publicly;

they tell them to me behind their hand. That is very distressing. That means that we are not masters of our own opinions, except when we vote, and even then we are careful to vote very privately indeed.

It is alarming that this should be the case. Why should any man in free America be afraid of any other man? Or why should any man fear competition, — competition either with his fellow-countrymen or with anybody else on earth?

It is part of the indictment against the protective policy of the United States that it has weakened and not enhanced the vigor of our people. American manufacturers who know that they can make better things than are made elsewhere in the world, that they can sell them cheaper in foreign markets than they are sold in these very markets of domestic manufacture, are afraid,— afraid to venture out into the great world on their own merits and their own skill. Think of it, a Nation full of genius and yet paralyzed by timidity! The timidity of the business men of America is to me nothing less than amazing. They are tied to the apron strings of the Government at Washington. They go about to seek favors. They say: "For pity's sake, don't expose us to the weather of the world; put some homelike cover over us. Protect us. See to it that foreign men don't come in and match their brains with ours." And, as if to enhance this peculiarity of ours, the strongest men amongst us get the biggest favors; the men of peculiar genius for organizing industries, the men who could run the industries of any country, are the men who are most strongly intrenched behind the highest rates in the schedules of the tariff. They are so timid morally, furthermore, that they dare not stand up before the American people, but conceal these favors in the verbiage of the tariff schedule itself, — in "jokers." Ah! but it is a bitter joke when men who seek favors are so afraid of the best judgment of their fellow-citizens that they dare not avow what they take.

Happily, the general revival of conscience in this country has not been confined to those who were consciously fighting special privilege. The awakening of conscience has extended to those who were *enjoying* special privileges, and I thank God that the business men of this country are beginning to see our economic organization in its true light, as a deadening aristocracy of privilege from which they themselves must escape. The small men of this country are not deluded, and not all the big business men of this country are deluded. Some men who have been led into wrong practices, who have been led into the practices of monopoly, because that seemed to be the drift and inevitable method of supremacy, are just as ready as we are to turn about

and adopt the process of freedom. For American hearts beat in a lot of these men, just as they beat under our jackets. They will be as glad to be free as we shall be to set them free. And then the splendid force which has lent itself to things that hurt us will lend itself to things that benefit us.

And we,— we who are not great captains of industry or business,— shall do them more good than we do now, even in a material way. If you have to be subservient, you are not even making the rich fellows as rich as they might be, because you are not adding your originative force to the extraordinary production of wealth in America. America is as rich, not as Wall Street, not as the financial centres in Chicago and St. Louis and San Francisco; it is as rich as the people that make those centres rich. And if those people hesitate in their enterprise, cower in the face of power, hesitate to originate designs of their own, then the very fountains which make these places abound in wealth are dried up at the source. By setting the little men of America free, you are not damaging the giants.

It may be that certain things will happen, for monopoly in this country is carrying a body of water such as men ought not to be asked to carry. When, by regulated competition,— that is to say, fair competition, competition that fights fair,— they are put upon their mettle, they will have to economize, and they cannot economize unless they get rid of that water. I do not know how to squeeze the water out, but they will get rid of it if you will put them to the necessity. They will have to get rid of it, or those of us who don't carry tanks will outrun them in the race. Put all the business of America upon the footing of economy and efficiency, and then let the race be to the strongest and the swiftest.

Our programme is a programme of prosperity; a programme of prosperity that is to be a little more pervasive than the present prosperity,— and pervasive prosperity is more fruitful than that which is narrow and restrictive. I congratulate the monopolies of the United States that they are not going to have their way, because, quite contrary to their own theory, the fact is that the people are wiser than they are. The people of the United States understand the United States as these gentlemen do not, and, if they will only give us leave, we will not only make them rich, but we will make them happy. Because, then, their conscience will have less to carry. I have lived in a state that was owned by a series of corporations. They handed it about. It was at one time owned by the Pennsylvania Railroad; then it was owned by the Public Service Corporation. It was owned by the

Public Service Corporation when I was admitted, and that corporation has been resentful ever since that I interfered with its tenancy. But I really did not see any reason why the people should give up their own residence to so small a body of men to monopolize; and, therefore, when I asked them for their title deeds and they couldn't produce them, and there was no court except the court of public opinion to resort to, they moved out. Then they ate out of our hands; and they did not lose flesh, either. They are making just as much money as they made before, only they are making it in a more respectable way. They are making it without the constant assistance of the legislature of the State of New Jersey. They are making it in the normal way, by supplying the people of New Jersey with the service in the way of transportation and gas and water that they really need. I do not believe that there are any thoughtful officials of the Public Service Corporation of New Jersey that now seriously regret the change that has come about. We liberated government in my state, and it is an interesting fact that we have not suffered one moment in prosperity.

What we propose, therefore, in this programme of freedom, is a programme of general advantage. Almost every monopoly that has resisted dissolution has resisted the real interests of its own stockholders. Monopoly always checks development, weighs down natural prosperity, pulls against natural advance.

Take but such an everyday thing as a useful invention and the putting of it at the service of men. You know how prolific the American mind has been in invention; how much civilization has been advanced by the steamboat, the cotton-gin, the sewing-machine, the reaping-machine, the typewriter, the electric light, the telephone, the phonograph. Do you know, have you had occasion to learn, that there is no hospitality for invention nowadays? There is no encouragement for you to set your wits at work to improve the telephone, or the camera, or some piece of machinery, or some mechanical process; you are not invited to find a shorter and cheaper way to make things or to perfect them, or to invent better things to take their place. There is too much money invested in old machinery; too much money has been spent advertising the old camera; the telephone plants, as they are, cost too much to permit their being superseded by something better. Wherever there is monopoly, not only is there no incentive to improve, but, improvement being costly in that it "scraps" old machinery and destroys the value of old products, there is a positive motive against improvement. The instinct of monopoly is against

novelty, the tendency of monopoly is to keep in use the old things, made in the old way; its disposition is to "standardize" everything. Standardization may be all very well,— but suppose everything had been standardized thirty years ago,— we should still be writing by hand, by gas-light, we should be without the inestimable aid of the telephone (sometimes, I admit, it is a nuisance), without the automobile, without wireless telegraphy. Personally, I could have managed to plod along without the aeroplane, and I could have been happy even without moving-pictures.

Of course, I am not saying that all invention has been stopped by the growth of trusts, but I think it is perfectly clear that invention in many fields has been discouraged, that inventors have been prevented from reaping the full fruits of their ingenuity and industry, and that mankind has been deprived of many comforts and conveniences, as well as of the opportunity of buying at lower prices.

The damper put on the inventive genius of America by the trusts operates in half a dozen ways: The first thing discovered by the genius whose device extends into a field controlled by a trust is that he can't get capital to make and market his invention. If you want money to build your plant and advertise your product and employ your agents and make a market for it, where are you going to get it? The minute you apply for money or credit, this proposition is put to you by the banks: "This invention will interfere with the established processes and the market control of certain great industries. We are already financing those industries, their securities are in our hands; we will consult them."

It may be, as a result of that consultation, you will be informed that it is too bad, but it will be impossible to "accommodate" you. It may be you will receive a suggestion that if you care to make certain arrangements with the trust, you will be permitted to manufacture. It may be you will receive an offer to buy your patent, the offer being a poor consolation dole. It may be that your invention, even if purchased, will never be heard of again.

That last method of dealing with an invention, by the way, is a particularly vicious misuse of the patent laws, which ought not to allow property in an idea which is never intended to be realized. One of the reforms waiting to be undertaken is a revision of our patent laws.

In any event, if the trust doesn't want you to manufacture your invention, you will not be allowed to, unless you have money of your own and are willing to risk it fighting the monopolistic trust with its vast resources. I am generalizing the statement, but I could particularize

it. I could tell you instances where exactly that thing happened. By the combination of great industries, manufactured products are not only being standardized, but they are too often being kept at a single point of development and efficiency. The increase of the power to produce in proportion to the cost of production is not studied in America as it used to be studied, because if you don't have to improve your processes in order to excel a competitor, if you are human you aren't going to improve your processes; and if you can prevent the competitor from coming into the field, then you can sit at your leisure, and, behind this wall of protection which prevents the brains of any foreigner competing with you, you can rest at your ease for a whole generation.

Can any one who reflects on merely this attitude of the trusts toward invention fail to understand how substantial, how actual, how great will be the effect of the release of the genius of our people to originate, improve, and perfect the instruments and circumstances of our lives? Who can say what patents now lying, unrealized, in secret drawers and pigeonholes, will come to light, or what new inventions will astonish and bless us, when freedom is restored?

Are you not eager for the time when the genius and initiative of all the people shall be called into the service of business? when newcomers with new ideas, new entries with new enthusiasms, independent men, shall be welcomed? when your sons shall be able to look forward to becoming, not employees, but heads of some small, it may be, but hopeful, business, where their best energies shall be inspired by the knowledge that they are their own masters, with the paths of the world open before them? Have you no desire to see the markets opened to all? to see credit available in due proportion to every man of character and serious purpose who can use it safely and to advantage? to see business disentangled from its unholy alliance with politics? to see raw material released from the control of monopolists, and transportation facilities equalized for all? and every avenue of commercial and industrial activity levelled for the feet of all who would tread it? Surely, you must feel the inspiration of such a new dawn of liberty!

There is the great policy of conservation, for example; and I do not conceive of conservation in any narrow sense. There are forests to conserve, there are great water powers to conserve, there are mines whose wealth should be deemed exhaustible, not inexhaustible, and whose resources should be safeguarded and preserved for future genera-

tions. But there is much more. There are the lives and energies of the people to be physically safeguarded.

You know what has been the embarrassment about conservation. The Federal Government has not dared relax its hold, because, not *bona fide* settlers, not men bent upon the legitimate development of great states, but men bent upon getting into their own exclusive control great mineral, forest, and water resources, have stood at the ear of the Government and attempted to dictate its policy. And the Government of the United States has not dared relax its somewhat rigid policy because of the fear that these forces would be stronger than the forces of individual communities and of the public interest. What we are now in dread of is that this situation will be made permanent. Why is it that Alaska has lagged in her development? Why is it that there are great mountains of coal piled up in the shipping places on the coast of Alaska which the Government at Washington will not permit to be sold? It is because the Government is not sure that it has followed all the intricate threads of intrigue by which small bodies of men have tried to get exclusive control of the coal fields of Alaska. The Government stands itself suspicious of the forces by which it is surrounded. Simply to say, "We are not going to do anything about the forests," when the country needs to use the forests, is not a practicable programme at all. To say that the people of the great State of Washington can't buy coal out of the Alaskan coal fields doesn't settle the question. You have got to have that coal sooner or later. And if you are so afraid of the Guggenheims and all the rest of them that you can't make up your mind what your policies are going to be about those coal fields, how long are we going to wait for the Government to throw off its fear? There can't be a working programme until there is a free Government. The day when the Government is free to set about a policy of positive conservation, as distinguished from mere negative reservation, will be an emancipation day of no small importance for the development of the country.

But the question of conservation is a very much bigger question than the conservation of our natural resources; because in summing up our natural resources there is one great natural resource which underlies them all, and seems to underlie them so deeply that we sometimes overlook it. I mean the people themselves.

What would our forests be worth without vigorous and intelligent men to make use of them? Why should we conserve our natural resources, unless we can by the magic of industry transmute them into the wealth of the world? What transmutes them into that wealth, if

not the skill and the touch of the men who go daily to their toil and who constitute the great body of the American people? What I am interested in is having the Government of the United States more concerned about human rights than about property rights. Property is an instrument of humanity; humanity isn't an instrument of property. And yet when you see some men riding their great industries as if they were driving a car of juggernaut, not looking to see what multitudes prostrate themselves before the car and lose their lives in the crushing effect of their industry, you wonder how long men are going to be permitted to think more of their machinery than they think of their men. Did you never think if it?— men are cheap, and machinery is dear; many a superintendent is dismissed for overdriving a delicate machine, who wouldn't be dismissed for overdriving an overtaxed man. You can discard your man and replace him; there are others ready to come into his place; but you can't without great cost discard your machine and put a new one in its place. You are less apt, therefore, to look upon your men as the essential vital foundation part of your whole business. It is time that property, as compared with humanity, should take second place, not first place. We must see to it that there is no overcrowding, that there is no bad sanitation, that there is no unnecessary spread of avoidable diseases, that the purity of food is safeguarded, that there is every precaution against accident, that women are not driven to impossible tasks, nor children permitted to spend their energy before it is fit to be spent. The hope and elasticity of the race must be preserved; men must be preserved according to their individual needs, and not according to the programmes of industry merely. What is the use of having industry, if we perish in producing it? If we die in trying to feed ourselves, why should we eat? If we die trying to get a foothold in the crowd, why not let the crowd trample us sooner and be done with it? I tell you that there is beginning to beat in this Nation a great pulse of irresistible sympathy which is going to transform the processes of government amongst us. The strength of America is proportioned only to the health, the energy, the hope, the elasticity, the buoyancy of the American people.

Is not that the greatest thought that you can have of freedom,—the thought of it as a gift that shall release men and women from all that pulls them back from being their best and from doing their best, that shall liberate their energy to its fullest limit, free their aspirations till no bounds confine them, and fill their spirits with the jubilance of realizable hope?

WHAT TO DO WITH A BOY

HOW TO TURN HIS ENERGY, HIS LOYALTY, HIS GANG INTO HELPFUL PATHS

BY

LYMAN BEECHER STOWE

THE best thing to do with a boy is to put him in a "gang"— and watch the gang. If he is a normal boy he is likely to be in a gang whether you put him in or not, only the gang he chooses is not apt to be beneficial, without some kind of supervision. With supervision, even the worst gangs can become helpful agencies.

The notorious Graveyard Gang, which carried on its machinations in the neighborhood of the old graveyard then on East Eleventh Street, New York, was in its heyday of pernicious activity when Mr. William R. George, known as the Founder of the Junior Republics, appeared on the scene to change the tenor of its ways. Mr. George, then hardly more than a boy himself, was reconnoitering with a view to starting a boys' club in this terrorized neighborhood, when he was set upon by the Graveyard Gang. Single-handed, he stood them off until the police came to his rescue. His fearless and effective resistance became a tradition of the neighborhood and smoothed the way for the new club which was soon started in the loft of an old ramshackle building. Boxing became one of the leading attractions of the club and Mr. George the leading boxer.

The inner circle of the Graveyard Gang was known as the Sons of Arrest. Only those who had been arrested were eligible for the distinction of membership in this inner circle, and he who had to his credit the greatest number of arrests was leader of the Sons of Arrest and of the Gang. This Gang preyed upon the peaceful citizens of the neighborhood and warred constantly with the police, whom they looked upon as their natural enemies. Mr. George conceived the audacious scheme of turning the Graveyard Gang into a law-and-order gang. He didn't say very much about it, however, but just kept on boxing and making friends.

Gradually his reputation as a boxer spread throughout the neighborhood. His admirers boasted that no one could beat him. Some scoffers at this new hero, with his subverting law-and-order notions, plotted to accomplish his downfall by seeking out some fellow who could whip him and then arranging a match between them. Finally they found just the man — a great, husky brute who had never been beaten and who had aspirations for the prize ring. Mr. George accepted the challenge with full knowledge of the conspiracy which lay back of it. It was arranged that the fight take place in a back room of the club, behind closed doors, and without witnesses.

At the appointed time the combatants put on the gloves, went into the room, and locked the door while the excited followers of each gathered around the keyhole. It had been arranged that they should fight until one or the other asked for quarter. For many minutes the eager auditors were fascinated by the sounds of violent scuffling and quick, heavy breathing, punctuated by the exhilarating thuds of well-landed blows. After what seemed a very long time to the expectant group around the keyhole, the door opened and the contestants came slowly out — panting, disheveled, and perspiring. In response to the simultaneous shout, "Who won?" Mr. George replied, "It was a draw." His opponent said nothing. Immediately came the outburst, "Then, youse git back in there an' fight it out." To this Mr. George agreed, but his opponent flung out, "Any of youse as wants ter ken have me gloves. I've had mine an' I ain't a-goin' back!"

Mr. George became and remained undisputed champion of the neighborhood.

He was now the recognized leader of the

new gang. His word was law. He appointed his staff and organized his gang in a more or less informal military manner. He and his staff of young toughs offered their services to the police sergeant of the precinct to help suppress lawlessness. The sergeant saw the point and at once accepted the offer.

Before their new leader came among them with his strange ideas, these youths had looked upon the police and others in authority as natural enemies to be resisted and fought at every step. Their loyalty was intense and primal. They were loyal to their gang and their leader. Theirs was like the tribal loyalty of men in primitive society. Their previous leaders had always led them against the traditional enemy — the police and others in authority. They had followed loyally. This new kind of leader saw fit to enter into an alliance with the traditional enemy and declare war upon the law breakers. As before, they followed loyally. Their loyalty was personal — their morality, reflected and vicarious. Had Mr. George suddenly faced about and led them into all kinds of wickedness they would have followed him in the same way — just as loyally. As great a force for good as personal loyalty may be, it is neither a high nor a dependable virtue. It is therefore wise to watch the gang and its leadership.

The famous Junior Republic at Freeville, N. Y., was the outgrowth of a summer fresh air camp. For the better enforcement of the rules of the camp, Mr. George established a Court of Justice. Here he acted as Judge, Jury, and Grand Executioner. The sentences were promptly executed by the Judge, armed with a stout birch rod, in his capacity as Grand Executioner. This daily performance was largely attended and much enjoyed by all except the culprits and Mr. George. Another discouraging aspect of the proceedings from Mr. George's point of view was that the number of culprits did not diminish. Every morning brought forth its fresh quota. Crime did not decrease.

One morning, just before he was to use the birch rod on the two star offenders of the day, Mr. George looked over the company and saw such unmistakable glances of eager expectancy that he was seized with a humiliating consciousness of the farcical character of the whole affair. These boys and girls came to be entertained. It was their daily circus. Suddenly the idea flashed into his mind of turning the two remaining culprits over to their companions for trial.

"Boys and girls," said he, with great earnestness, "I have been acting in all these cases as Judge, Jury, and Grand Executioner. I don't know what you have thought about the matter; I don't know that I have really cared, but this morning I do care. This is going to be your affair. I am going to let Lanky and Curly tell their story to you and then I am going to let you decide whether they shall be punished or go free. It's up to you."

At once there was a change in the bearing of every boy and girl present. They straightened up and nodded their approval to Mr. George and to one another. There was a new light in their eyes. This light pleased Mr. George. He felt that justice would be done.

Lanky and Curly, who were seated on a bench, backs to the company, did not even turn around to see how this announcement was received. Lanky leaned toward Curly and said in a stage whisper, "Say, Curly, dis is a lead-pipe cinch!"

Mr. George turned to Lanky and said, "Now, son, you may get up and tell your fellow citizens all about it."

Lanky, who was something of a humorist, rolled his eyes toward the heavens, assumed a sanctimonious expression, swung slowly round in a pivotal manner, and drawled out, "I hain't stole no apples. Oh, no, I hain't stole no apples."

When this effort was received with stony silence, instead of with the expected shout of laughter, Lanky for the first time lowered his eyes and looked into the faces of his companions. Every young face was set and serious. He saw that peculiar light in their eyes which had so pleased Mr. George. It did not please Lanky. He realized with confused amazement that he was facing stern judges instead of condoning pals. The angry defiance which is so easily aroused in street boys flamed

forth, and he shouted, "Aw, every one o' youse has stole apples!"

After this outburst, stage fright with all its paralyzing horrors seized upon Lanky. Like an animal at bay he stood abject and cowering for some minutes and finally whined out, "Say, fellers, I didn't stole dem apples. Curly here is de bloke wot stole dem."

At this several of the boys shouted, "Shame, shame!" and the wretched Lanky realized that he had made a fatal blunder. With the courage of desperation he blurted out, "Aw, kill me, then, if youse want ter," and threw himself upon the bench.

Mr. George said to the company, "Is he guilty or not guilty?"

There was a pause and one boy called out in explanation of this technical phrase, "He wants to know wedder he done it or wedder he didn't done it."

With a howl came the unanimous verdict of the jury, "He done it!" And then Mr. George "done it" upon the person of Lanky.

After Lanky had left the tent, muttering that he would "lay for a chance to get even with every guy in the bunch," Mr. George said to Curly, "Now it's your chance, my boy."

Curly had not watched Lanky's misfortunes in vain. He well knew he couldn't "put anything across" on that jury and so he did not try. He said, "Yes, I took de apples, but Lanky didn't play me quite square when he said I took dem all. I don't know which of us took de most. I guess we didn't count, but I took me share an' I'm willin' ter take me share of de trashing, but I jus' wan ter tell you fellers dat I'll hole me right hand up an' promise dat I hopes ter die if I ever takes any more, 'cause I know it hain't right to steal an' me mudder she would feel orful bad if she know'd I'd been crookin', an' dat's all wot I got ter say." And with that he dropped upon the bench, buried his head in his arms, and burst into tears.

Mr. George said, "Is he guilty?"

No response.

"Is he not guilty?" asked Mr. George.

Again no response, except that the whole company was plunged into an animated conversation. A group of the older boys withdrew somewhat from the others and appeared particularly absorbed in discussion. Finally one of these boys, evidently speaking for the others, said, "Mr. George, there hain't no doubt 'bout it that Curly is guilty, but say, Mr. George, won't youse please go light on him?"

Here was a "recommendation for mercy" and Mr. George proceeded "to go light enough on Curly," to suit the most sympathetic observer.

After disposing of Curly, Mr. George said, "Before dismissal I want to tell you that hereafter all discussions of this kind are going to be settled in this tent by you boys and girls."

The next morning there were only half the usual number of offenders. Mr. George then announced that there would be no more whippings, but that those convicted would be required to pick up stones in the meadow for a number of hours commensurate with their offense. This new method of punishment still further reduced the volume of business of the court.

This incident marked the end of Mr. George's merely personal work in saving individual boys and girls and the beginning of his great work for humanity. He had substituted loyalty to an idea for loyalty to himself. These boys and girls had dealt justly with their fellow offenders, not because of loyalty to Mr. George, but because of loyalty to a great abstract idea — Justice. This loyalty to Justice has since become the mainspring not only of the Junior Republics, but of many other institutions and organizations for boys and girls — and men and women, for that matter.

When Mr. George founded the Junior Republic at Freeville, as a concession to the unwise advice of wise friends he took the office of president himself. After he had found that this was a mistake — that it weakened the sense of responsibility of the boy and girl officers and citizens — he determined to resign and urge the election of one of the boys in his place. This he did and recommended as his successor the boy whom he thought most reliable. On the strength of Mr. George's recommendation, this boy was very properly

elected. At the end of his year's term he sought reëlection and got Mr. George again to endorse and back him. No sooner had Mr. George announced his intention of supporting the president for reëlection, than there appeared in the field an insurgent candidate. This boy took for the slogan of his campaign, "Let us have no boss — not even Daddy George!" Mr. George's protégé was overwhelmingly defeated and the young insurgent elected in his place. Probably no one was more delighted at this unexpected result than Mr. George himself. His young citizens had had to choose between loyalty to him personally and loyalty to the principles of self-government. While they doubtless did not consciously think it out, they had instinctively chosen to be loyal to an idea rather than to even their well-loved leader.

As I have said, this kind of loyalty is not by any means confined to Junior Republics, but may be found wherever boys or girls have been allowed a real share in the management of their own affairs. Boys have a way of living up to what is expected of them which is as distressing to those who expect evil as it is gratifying to those who expect good. There are a hundred or more public schools in which the principles of self-government have been introduced in a conscious and tangible form. This case occurred in the school court of a great public school on the lower East Side in New York. The prisoner at the bar was charged with having jumped upon the rear platform of a passing car and rung up some fares. When the young District Attorney came to sum up to the Judge, he said in conclusion, "Just a word more, your Honor (His Honor was fourteen years old) before I sit down. Everybody who knows anything about our school knows we have self-government here. Now, supposing the president of this car company should write to our principal a letter that his cars was troubled by boys doing things to them more goin' past our school than any other place. Wouldn't that be a disgrace to our school and to all our officers an' to every citizen? An' what would people say about our self-government, wouldn't they say as how if that was the way we acted when we had self-government, why then we wasn't fit to have it? Now, your Honor, I think you ought to think about this before you give your sentence in this prisoner's case."

His Honor evidently did "think about this." He pronounced the prisoner guilty and penalized him by prohibiting him not only from taking part in the athletic games, for which he had been in training for some weeks, but even from attending them. Had there been no self-government organization in this school, the well-known loyalty among boys would have prevented these very boys, the District Attorney and the Judge, from even reporting the wrong doing of their companion, to say nothing of meting out justice to him. Wherever there is this loyalty of one to another, unhappily akin though it be to the "honor among thieves," there can be built up a higher loyalty which shall entirely override, when the two come into conflict, this merely individual loyalty.

The organization which to-day is harnessing this loyalty of boys on the largest scale, and turning it to the service of all, is the Boy Scouts. The Boy Scouts of Moorhead, Minn., decided that the condition of the streets was not a credit to their town. Their petty loyalties to their "bunches" and their "gangs" had been merged into a large loyalty for their community. Instead of sending a letter of complaint to a newspaper, as some of their elders had done, they marched in a body to the central square, armed with burlap bags and sharp-pointed sticks, whence, on the blowing of a whistle, they scattered through every street of the town. With a fine frenzy of cleanliness, quite unknown to the adult professional street cleaner, they seized, bagged, and destroyed all pieces of loose paper and other offensive articles throughout the length and breadth of the town. Had these boys scattered a like amount of refuse, their act would have been attributed to boy nature, and that meaningless formula, "Boys will be boys," would have been quoted. Obviously it was just as much an expression of boy nature to clean up this town as it would have been to do

the opposite. If boy nature has usually expressed itself in a less fortunate manner, it must be attributed to other causes than its inherent qualities.

The delegates to the National Conference of Charities, held in the city of Boston last year, were given a steamboat excursion about Boston Harbor. Two bright-looking lads were selling copies of the *Survey* to the delegates. As one of these boys passed near where Mr. George was standing, a delegate turned to his companion and said, "That is one of the judges we saw sitting at the Newsboys' Court last night dealing out fines and warnings to the young offenders who had violated their licenses."

One of the party thereupon explained that the newsboys of Boston, of school age, were organized into an association of which the members in good standing were licensed by the city to sell newspapers. There were regulations and obligations, some of which were covered by city ordinances. Some people interested in self-government had secured the adoption of measures creating a judicial body of five, three of whom were newsboys elected by their fellows, and two adults, to try the cases of violation of rules. The court was established. The moral tone of the organization immediately changed for the better, and even those who had been most incredulous at first had acknowledged that the plan was a success.

Another delegate then said, "I went expecting to be amused, but instead of that I never felt more awe or reverence in the United States Supreme Court than I felt in the presence of those boy judges, and evidently everyone else in the room, whether boy or man, had the same feeling. I don't know when they closed court last night. They tried the little chaps first and sent them home, and they were trying some of the older lads, and still had quite a bunch of them on hand when we left."

Mr. George listened to these comments in silence, but with a glad heart. He had seized the opportunity to fan the flame which resulted in this court when it had been discussed by a group of enthusiasts at dinner in the City Club of Boston. He went over to the lad whose recognition had started the discussion and said, "You're one of the judges of the Newsboys' Court, I understand."

"Yes," replied the boy with an earnest, straightforward look.

"How do you like your job?"

A serious expression came into his face as he replied, "In a way I like it, but a feller has got to keep his eye peeled on himself, and his 'think-tank' pretty clear."

"I hear your court sat very late last night."

"Yes," he said, "we had a good many cases last night."

"How many sessions do you hold a week?"

"One usually, and sometimes two."

"How much are you paid for service on the bench?"

"Fifty cents from the city every night we serve."

"Who decides the number of nights you shall sit?"

"We do — the judges."

"If you wanted to, could you hold a session every evening?'

"I think prob'ly we could," he answered.

"Then why don't you hold more sessions instead of continuing them so late?" asked Mr. George.

"Because," he said, "we don't want to have it look as if we was graftin' off the city."

This newsboy's energies were directed in a helpful direction. But it is very improbable that such a thing as loyalty to his city had ever entered this boy's head before the formation of the Newsboys' Court.

The writer visited this court last August. There were only two boys on the bench. Both the adult judges were away on their vacations and the third boy was working at a summer hotel. The cases were presented to the court by the Supervisor of Newsboys, an adult, and the parents of the offenders were called as witnesses. Also, the young judges impressed upon them their responsibility for the good conduct of their boys. A frequent offence was boarding moving cars to sell papers. In these cases the judges described some fatal accidents that had befallen boys in doing this, to bring home both to the boys

and their parents the great danger involved. A frequent penalty for a minor offense was an order to memorize the rules and regulations of the Association. This Court is an adjunct of the School Committee of Boston and its decisions are legally binding. The night I visited it, two newsboys were handing down decisions that are legally recognized by the city of Boston.

Most boys are suffering from an inverted esprit de corps. They are loyal to their "bunch," their "gang," their intimate friends, or perhaps even their family, but all too often their loyalty is to destructive agencies. In Junior Republics, in School Republics, in the Newsboys' Court, among the Boy Scouts, and in many other similar organizations, this inverted esprit de corps is being turned right side up. Nor is it only by these rather elaborate organizations that the loyalty of boys can be awakened. There are hundreds of people throughout the country to-day who are helping boys' "gangs" but who have scarcely heard of Junior Republics, School Republics, Newsboys' Courts, or even the Boy Scouts. But it all comes in the last analysis to putting a boy in a gang, turning "the gang" toward helpful purposes, and making use of the boys' loyalty to keep them straight.

THE JAPANESE IN CALIFORNIA

WHY CALIFORNIANS REGARD THEIR PRESENCE AS "THE BEGINNING OF THE BIGGEST PROBLEM THAT EVER FACED THE AMERICAN PEOPLE"

BY
CHESTER H. ROWELL

THE California legislature was assembled in the Senate chamber for joint hearing on the Japanese bills, whose recurrent agitation brings California biennially into the spotlight of the world. Directors of the Panama-Pacific Exposition (the writer among them) were pleading for conservative action, or inaction. A gaunt farmer rose to reply: "Up at Elk Grove, where I live," he said, "on the next farm a Japanese man lives, and a white woman. That woman is carrying around a baby in her arms. What is that baby? It isn't white. It isn't Japanese. I'll tell you what it is —

"It is the beginning of the biggest problem that ever faced the American people!"

Psychologically, this epitomized the whole question — the beginning of a race problem, multiplied in imagination by the possibilities of all the future; the challenge, which sort of baby shall prefigure the future Californian. Without waiting for the hearing to end, the Assembly committee withdrew and unanimously reported out one of the very bills against which we were protesting. In the legislative balance, that baby outweighed the great Exposition.

And, dealing with the problem wide and long, no far-sighted man can dismiss the farmer's challenge as a mere figment of fancy. Let only that happen in California which has already happened in Hawaii; let only an awakening Orient pour through the Golden Gate a stream comparable to that which Europe has poured through Hell Gate — and that baby will have increased to the exact problem the Elk Grove farmer pictured. Injustice has been the only American way of meeting a race problem. We dealt unjustly by the Indian, and he died. We deal unjustly with the Negro, and he submits. If Japanese ever come in sufficient numbers to constitute a race problem, we shall deal unjustly with them — and they will neither die nor submit. This is the bigness of the problem, seen in the telescope of the imagination, and is the whole reason for the emotional intensity of California's agitation over a situation whose present practical dimensions are relatively

insignificant. Californians are vividly conscious of their position as the warders of the Western mark. They hold not merely a political and geographic, but a racial, frontier — the border between the white man's and the brown man's world. To a keen sense of this trust, the possible crisis takes on the significance of a new Thermopylæ. Psychologically, this is the Japanese problem in California, and no view of the situation would be just to California if it omitted a sympathetic appreciation of this state of mind, and of its possible ultimate justification.

It is equally necessary to recognize that the question has a psychological aspect on the Japanese side also. At this very moment, while this is being written, twenty thousand people are surging through the streets of Tokyo, clamoring for war with America, all because the California legislature is considering a measure which is already the unprotested law of the United States, by three separate Federal statutes, which is the law of five states, and has been immemorial law in Japan itself. Even a mob would not be so irrational on merely practical provocation. It is the whole revulsion of the brown man's race pride against the white man's race exclusiveness, concentrated for the moment on an otherwise inconsequential act of the white man's outpost province. It is a mutual state of emotional hyperesthesia.

This subjective aspect of the situation is real and important. But the more immediate need is definite knowledge of objective facts. What are the actual conditions of numbers, distribution, immigration, and industrial status of Japanese in California?

Exact information is difficult to obtain. Every figure of official statistics is challenged by the Asiatic Exclusion League, which offers, instead, equally vulnerable estimates of Orientals smuggled over the border. However, it may be said with certainty that, whatever the number of Japanese in the United States, most of them are in California; that in California they absolutely dominate certain occupations, chiefly the migratory labor in the production of fruit and vegetables; and that the number owning or leasing land or engaged in business is still small, but is increasing. The total number of Japanese men is not legitimately increasing, but there is a steady increase in the number of women.

By the census, there were 71,722 Japanese in the United States in 1910, of whom about 55,000 were in California. It is estimated, on Japanese authority, that there were 11,400 Japanese in the United States in 1898, which number, however, was more than doubled in the next two years, and reached nearly 80,000 by 1908. Since then, on the face of the figures, the number has decreased to about 75,000. This estimate is reached, however, by subtracting from the number of residents and recorded immigrants the number departing for Japan. The Exclusion League claims that the majority of the immigrants now come in surreptitiously over the Mexican border, and that the decrease is therefore fictitious. The League even guesses that there may be 100,000 Japanese in the state. Probably a safe maximum estimate would be that not more than 3 per cent. of the population of California and not more than 10 per cent. of the population of any one county is Japanese. Officially, the proportion in the state is a trifle more than 2 per cent. and the distribution ranges from 9 per cent. in Yolo and San Bernardino counties down to none at all in many counties. The largest percentage in any city is in Sacramento, where Japanese constitute 5½ per cent. of the population. The proportion in Sacramento County is 8 per cent. There are nearly 8,000 Japanese in Los Angeles and nearly 7,000 in San Francisco. Ten counties in the state have more than 1,000 Japanese each, ranging from 1,000 in Placer and Contra Costa to 11,500 in Los Angeles County. The Exclusion League's estimates might double some of these figures.

Officially, the history of the migration of Japanese laborers to the United States begins in 1885, when the emigration of laborers was legalized, and ends in 1907, when the "gentlemen's agreement" went into effect, whereby passports are no longer issued in Japan to laborers destined for the

United States. The number did not reach 1,000 until 1891, and since 1907 it has officially included no laborers, but has included numerous "picture brides," many of whom have engaged in labor for hire after arrival. These women also naturally presage a new population of native-born Japanese, who will be American citizens. They are the weak point in the "gentlemen's agreement." If there are 55,000 Japanese men in the state (or 100,000, as the Exclusion League guesses) the privilege of each to send his photograph to Japan and marry it to a wife means a possible immediate increase of the population to 110,000 (or 200,000) with the potential permanent increase of the progeny of these marriages. These wives, of course, also increase the tendency of the Japanese to seek more fixed occupations. The picture bride is not permitted to leave Japan until her photograph husband has provided a place for her. "Catch 'em wife" is one of the motives commonly assigned by Japanese for taking up land leases. To these must be added whatever Japanese slip in from Mexico. The Exclusion League insists that there is a constant stream of Japanese immigration to insignificant Mexican ports near the border, with no increase in the Japanese population of those ports and no sign of its absorption elsewhere in Mexico.

Statistically, the quality of the Japanese immigrants is good. They bring in more money per capita than any but the English and German immigrants; they have less illiteracy than the immigrants from Southern Europe; they are nearly all of vigorous age and in good health; they do not become dependents nor provide many serious criminals: they are intelligent, energetic, and self-reliant, well able to take care of themselves. If white immigrants of equal quality were available, they would be welcomed enthusiastically in unlimited numbers. The opposition to the Japanese is wholly racial.

The characteristic occupation of the Japanese in California is that of migratory farm laborers. On the estimate of 55,000 population, 20,000 were given as "farm hands." But of the 4,500 "farmers" many are on small temporary leaseholds and easily revert to day labor. The 6,000 employees of merchants and the 5,000 domestic servants include many who occasionally do farm labor, and even the 4,000 "merchants" are mostly keepers of insignificant shops, of whom two thirds have each less than $1,000 capital invested. There are 3,580 unassigned laborers, and 8,500 (mostly women and children) of "no occupation." On railroads, 1,500 are employed. Greeks and Mexicans have largely displaced them. Of the non-laboring classes, there are 120 officials, teachers, and clergy, 1,000 "students" (many of them doubtless were temporary pupils, learning English).

The total number of farms owned by Japanese in 1912 was 312, with an acreage of 12,726 and an assessed valuation of $609,605 (real value probably about $1,000,000). The number of farms had increased in three years from 208 to 312, and the acreage from 10,791 to 12,726. Japanese owned 218 town lots, with an assessed valuation, including improvements, of $235,675. This was an increase of $60,981 in three years. There were 319 recorded leases, in November, 1909, covering 20,294 acres, and 282 leases were recorded from that date to December 12, 1912, covering 17,596 acres.

These figures must, however, fall considerably short of the amount of land actually farmed by Japanese in California. Even the Japanese estimates allow 4,500 "farmers," and here are only 631 farms, including farms owned and leases recorded, for them to farm. The discrepancy may be accounted for in part by the existence of a form of contract-farming "on shares" which is technically rather an employment than a leasehold, but does put the share-contractor in physical occupancy.

In the distribution of land ownership, the largest amount is in Fresno County, where 4,776 acres are owned by Japanese. The three central counties of the San Joaquin Valley (and of the state), Fresno, Madera, and Tulare, are the only ones in which the Japanese own more than 1,000 acres. In Tulare County there are 1,053 acres and in Madera 1,049. This is the raisin grape district. The eight San Joaquin Valley counties contain 8,347

acres of the 12,726 owned by Japanese. Curiously enough, this district is not the one in which anti-Japanese agitation is most acute. Possibly this is because here is a region in which there is plenty of room. It is a great plain, with counties as large as Eastern states, and with a very cosmopolitan population, accustomed to making allowances for national and racial differences. The most intense feeling comes from a few circumscribed districts in Northern California in which even a comparatively few Japanese farms may produce a miniature of Hawaiian social conditions.

The distribution of leaseholds is very different from the distribution of ownership. The largest mass of leaseholds is in the three counties of San Joaquin, Sacramento, and Contra Costa, in the delta of the confluence of the two rivers. These immensely rich reclaimed lands are largely farmed by Japanese, who raise on them prodigious crops of potatoes, asparagus, and other vegetables. Here is the headquarters of Mr. George Shima, the "potato king," the richest Japanese in California, who controls several thousands of acres of island and delta lands, and operates his own fleet of river boats to handle his crops. Mr. Shima employs a small army of Japanese, Chinese, and Hindus. He has engaged in extensive speculative operations on the potato market, in addition to selling his own crop. He is an active member of the Stockton Chamber of Commerce, and a large investor in city real estate and other properties. When the present projects for the reclamation of the extensive swamps of this region are completed, with the possible introduction of rice culture, doubtless the district will be still further Orientalized.

The only other centres of large Japanese lease holdings are in Placer County in Northern California, Monterey County on the central coast, and Merced County in the sweet-potato district in the middle of the Valley.

The amount of land owned or leased by Japanese in southern California is infinitesimal, and there is very little organized anti-Japanese sentiment in that section. The Japanese in southern California are nearly all laborers and, this being the non-union section of the State, the labor-class opposition to them is not so effective as in the closely unionized Northern cities.

The typical object-lessons of conditions as they might become are small districts, like the Vaca Valley, north of San Francisco Bay, or the Florin and Elk Grove districts, near Sacramento, where the Japanese have "taken the country" to the extent of moving in in such numbers that white men, by race repulsion, are moving out. These conditions, if they became general, would spell the Hawaiianization of California. The present fact is that they are confined to a few spots, and the Japanese authorities offer their good offices to induce the dispersion of these.

Compared with the total industries and farms of the state, these Japanese enterprises are, of course, insignificant. If it were not for the race question, they would be forgotten. But it is quite otherwise with farm labor. Here the principal production of the state is really dominated by the Japanese. On the farms operated by Japanese, of course practically all the labor (96 per cent.) is also Japanese. On the farms operated by white farmers, according to an investigation made in 1909, of the total labor employed, 54 per cent. was white, 36 per cent. Japanese, and the remaining 10 per cent. Chinese, Mexicans, Hindus, and Indians. On the large farms the percentage of Japanese was much larger, and on the small farms much smaller, than this average.

But the most striking fact is the classification of occupations. For instance, counting the farms of white farmers alone, nearly nine tenths of the berries, two thirds of the sugar-beets, more than half of the grapes and nursery products, 46 per cent. of the vegetables, and more than one third of the citrus and deciduous fruits, were raised by Japanese labor. At the other extreme, of hops only 8 per cent. and of hay and of grain only 6 per cent. were raised by Japanese labor, and of miscellaneous crops less than 20 per cent. On farms where whites were employed exclusively, no berries nor nursery products were grown, and little vegetables, except beans.

In other words, while the Japanese do an inconsiderable part of the business

of California, and very little of those sorts of farming which California has in common with other states, they practically dominate the labor of the characteristic agricultural and horticultural productions of California.

The explanation is found in the peculiarly migratory conditions of California farm labor. The fruit crops are seasonal. They require a great deal of labor for a short time every year, and very little labor the rest of the year. Fortunately, the seasonal demand varies with the different fruits. There is a harvest of some sort going on somewhere in California practically every month of the year. Oranges, for instance, ripen in midwinter, grapes in the fall, deciduous fruits in the summer, and berries in the spring. There is plenty of work, but not continuously in any one place. If farms are large, producing much fruit and few human beings, this work can only be done by migratory labor. Much of the work, also, like thinning sugar beets, or cutting raisin grapes, must be done squatting. Oriental labor adapts itself to both these conditions, and since the Chinese have grown old and few, the Japanese have taken their places. Naturally, also, as soon as an occupation becomes known as a "Jap job" (like "niggers' work" in the South) the quality of white men who can be induced to enter it becomes distinctly lower. The darker race can monopolize almost any occupation it enters, even without underbidding, simply by the retirement of white men from it. White men shun an occupation in which Orientals are generally engaged, just as they shun a neighborhood in which Orientals largely reside. Indeed, underbidding is the least part of the Japanese problem in California. In the squatting occupations, in which the Japanese surpass white men in efficiency, they also earn more money. In other occupations, the difference in wages is probably not much greater than the difference in efficiency.

From the superficial American standpoint, the Japanese are probably less popular than the Chinese whom they displaced. They are less docile and less fitted to that status of human mules which the American wishes the Oriental to occupy. Their moral and business standards, also, are more difficult for the white man to comprehend. It is a common observation that the Chinaman's only virtues are business virtues, whereas the chief faults of the Japanese are business faults. Therefore, the American business man, understanding no standards but business standards, judges the Chinese by his virtues and the Japanese by his faults.

American and Chinese civilizations are built on contract. Japanese civilization is built on personal honor and loyalty. So when the American business man sees the Chinese keeping his contract, he discovers in him the one virtue he knows how to appreciate. But when a Japanese finds himself in a contract which changed conditions have now made burdensome, he wonders uncomprehendingly how an honorable gentleman could desire to impose on him terms which are now unjust. And the honorable gentleman understands only that the Japanese wants to sneak out of an honest bargain. The two moral standards are incommensurable. The Japanese who may evade a business obligation but who will sacrifice his life to a punctilo of honor or patriotism — he is a mystery. But the Chinese who will rob his government, or perjure the member of a rival tong to the gallows, but whose business word is inviolable — he is easy to understand.

When not in the fields, the California Japanese congregate in the "Japtown" districts of the principal cities. "Japtown" is usually adjacent to the dwindling Chinatown, which it partly absorbs. But the Japanese build decent houses, admitting light and air, and with chimneys to let out the smoke. Their shops resemble American stores, and sometimes grow to be considerable establishments. There are moving picture shows, pool rooms, and other places of amusement. Sanitary conditions are usually good, and the general look of life is bright and cheerful. They are a polite, vivacious, and delightfully likable people. And the bitterest anti-Japanese agitator in California has never once suggested that they are an inferior race. They are of a different and physically unassimilable race; that is all.

Anti-Japanese agitation began in California almost as soon as there were enough Japanese to agitate against. It was the natural successor to the anti-Chinese sentiment. The large landowners were and still are pro-Chinese and consequently pro-Japanese. The laboring classes in the cities have always been bitterly anti-Oriental. The sentiment grades all the way up from sand-lot demagogy to the finest racial patriotism. The sand-lot standard is represented by the Asiatic Exclusion League, whose president is Mr. Olaf A. Tveitmoe, recently released from the Leavenworth penitentiary on bonds, pending his appeal from conviction for complicity in the McNamara dynamiting. This League, organized in 1905, claims a membership of more than 100,000, but much of this is probably the ready-made list of affiliated organizations. Doubtless it contains many excellent men, but the character and methods of its leadership discredit its cause. Such of the anti-Japanese agitation in California as is artificially stirred up has its source in this League. But the general spontaneous sentiment is, of course, far deeper and sounder than this.

For ten years, alien land bills have been introduced in every session of the legislature, and in most sessions there have been school bills and other intentionally offensive measures. Executive pressure, in Washington and Sacramento, has always eliminated the miscellaneous bills, and then the land bills have divided into two classes, one discriminating against the Japanese and the other applying to all nations alike. Japanese representations have always beaten the discriminatory measure, and British corporation influences have then beaten the non-discriminatory measure. It is an old game of see-saw; but every two years it stirs up first California, then Japan, then Washington, and finally the world.

Meantime, the discriminatory measure, excluding "aliens not eligible to citizenship" from land owning, has become the law of the state of Washington, without arousing any excitement. The non-discriminatory measure, excluding aliens who have not taken out their first papers, was already the Federal law for the District of Columbia and the public lands, and, with one different provision, for the territories. It is the law of Illinois, Idaho, Kentucky, Minnesota, and Missouri. With the addition that actual resident aliens, during their residence, may also hold land, it is the law of Oklahoma and Texas, and of the territories.

Japan had an absolute law against alien ownership until April 13, 1910, and in effect has it yet. The law of that date was not to go into effect until confirmed by imperial ordinance, and that ordinance has not yet been issued. Even in the event of the issuance of the ordinance, the right will be extremely limited. Only foreigners actually resident in Japan, during their residence, and such foreign corporations registered in Japan as shall receive the permission of the Minister of Home Affairs shall acquire land. Even these shall not acquire it unless their countries grant the same rights to Japanese, and not then unless their countries are designated by imperial ordinance, which has not been done. In no case, even after the proclamation, shall they acquire land in the districts of Hokkaido, Formosa, or Karafuto (in other words, the territorial outposts of Japan, in which there are race problems), or in any district which may be designated by imperial ordinance as "necessary for national defense." So the repeal of the alien land law of Japan is, so far, purely theoretical, and even if it is ever put into effect, the rights under it will be extremely limited and always revocable.

All these things pass without notice, unless they happen in California. But the mere introduction of a bill in the California legislature, identical with the laws of the United States and of other states and nations, including Japan, at once stirs up riot and rumors of war and threats of retaliation, and sets all the foreign offices in the world by the ears. Which only confirms California's own opinion that it is the focus of what is potentially the greatest race problem in the world.

What California does not so easily appreciate is that, on the present actual situation, the practical problem is not

: at all, and that to precipitate unnec-
y action on the insignificant fraction
e problem within its immediate juris-
ɔn may jeopardize the far larger per-
:nt responsibility, in which California
; the coöperation of the Nation and
e world.
hether ten thousand acres of Japanese
s shall become twenty thousand is not overwhelmingly important. That the two chief races of mankind shall stay each on its own side of the Pacific, there to conduct in peace and friendship the commerce of goods and ideas, and of the things of the spirit, but without general interpenetration of populations, or commingling of blood — that is precisely the greatest thing in the world.

TRADE SCOUTS WHO CAPTURE MILLIONS

CONTRAST BETWEEN THE AMERICAN CONSULAR SERVICE TEN YEARS AGO AND NOW AS SEEN IN TWO TRIPS AROUND THE WORLD

BY

LEWIS R. FREEMAN

"HAVE you noticed the difference," asked the representative of a Massachusetts shoe company with whom I shared a compartment on a
a little more than a year ago —
e you noticed the difference in the
that Europe looks at American manu-
res to-day and the way she regarded
five years ago? When I first began
ng over here, for a salesman to open
y saying that he was selling American
s was to start with a handicap. We
l it better to show the goods first and
in that they were of Yankee manu-
re afterward. In other words, what
ɔld was sold in spite, not because, of
fact that it was American-made.
ay the 'U. S. A.' mark is a help."
: attributed this gratifying improve-
in our trade showing partly to the
er attention that American manu-
rers are giving to foreign demands,
y to the passing of foreign prejudices
ıst goods of American manufacture,
partly to the very valuable help
:red by the Consular Service.
Of course," he continued, "the great-
id of the Consular Service has come
ıgh its keeping our exporting depart-
s informed regarding foreign needs; but it is surprising how much a live consul — if he is willing — can do toward getting a salesman started right in a new place; and most of them now-a-days seem more than ready to do all they can. The United States consuls of to-day are much more useful than those of ten years ago; and it's a lucky thing, too. The consulates are the advanced outposts in this coming campaign of ours for a proper share of world's trade, and we've got to have the best men obtainable."

The American consul of to-day is a far more useful Government servant than the one of ten years ago, and it is true also that the change comes most opportunely. There is indeed big work ahead.

Back in the 70's and 80's and even the 90's, when American export trade consisted of little beyond the fortuitous overflow of our fields and ranges and one or two manufactured articles — such as sewing machines, reapers, etc. —, the chief responsibility of our consular officials in all but the greater European commercial centres was the somewhat indefinite duty of "upholding the dignity" of the Stars and Stripes in various corners of the earth. In those times a consular appointment — especially in one of the lower grades — was regarded by office-seekers who were

chiefly interested in the service as the ultimate alternative, to be accepted only when no job was available at home. A man who had "earned" an office figured the value of a consular appointment at exactly its annual salary — plus fees and allowances — multiplied by the number of years the appointing President had still in office. He never regarded it as a stepping stone, for he knew that, even if there were not a change of administration, his enforced residence abroad would probably minimize his "usefulness" to his party to an extent that would make him "ineligible" for re-appointment. That the service was filled so largely from the office-seeking class was the principal reason for its unpopularity even among the office-seekers themselves, for the man standing faithfully at his post in Batavia, Durban, or Talcahuano had scant chance to continue those little services to his party in Maine, Michigan, or Nebraska which had been the principal reason for his appointment.

But things have changed, for when a man can pass his examinations and receive his appointment regardless of his politics we are on the way toward having the most efficient consular service of all nations, because it is generally admitted abroad that our consular system is in a class by itself as a "business machine," and such a machine, operated by the class of men who will be attracted to the service when it is in fact as well as in theory unshackled of politics, will be fully equal to the great work ahead of it, that of placing the United States in the front of the world's exporting nations.

Perhaps the consular appointments of the lower grades are even freer from politics than many of us guess. Certainly we cannot be too optimistic regarding the efficiency and usefulness to which the service may attain when it is freed not only from politics but from the fear of politics and kept on a basis where it will offer the young American what the consular services of Great Britain, Germany, France, and the other European nations offer their young men — an opportunity *for a life of endeavor, a* worthy career.

The days of the "utterly impossibles" in the consular service had largely passed even before the pernicious system which was responsible for them had begun to yield before the attacks of the civil service reformers of both parties. This had happened principally because increasingly larger trickles of our foreign trade were beginning to reach into the remoter corners of the earth, demanding that even the consulates lowest in rank should be occupied by men who are at least able to add a column of figures and to attend to a certain amount of correspondence and routine business.

The practice of making consular appointments as rewards for "political service rendered" continued all through the 90's, but in the early years of the new century the inclination to consider a candidate's fitness rather than his claim on the party appeared. Under a Presidential order of Mr. Roosevelt's in 1906, the competitive system for candidates for consular appointments was begun, and a striking improvement in the whole service has been shown since then.

During the four years, 1904-1907, inclusive, I covered, fairly leisurely and generally country by country and colony by colony, a greater portion of the six continents of the old and new worlds, writing articles for Sunday newspaper publication, but also devoting considerable time to the collection of material on industrial, economic, agricultural, and commercial progress and prospects in their relation to American trade. I covered South America and the West Indies the most thoroughly, because during the year and a half that I spent in those parts I was also supplying information to a London corporation which had opened a department for supplying down-to-the-minute data on business opportunities in various parts of the world. During this four-year period I made the acquaintance of what I shall call the last of the old régime in the consular service. I came into contact with the young men of the new régime during another trip of two years and a half — from the middle of 1910 to the end of 1912. On this journey I traveled over Asia, Africa, and Europe with much the same ends in view as on my former trip.

ıe fall of 1904, while the Russian-
se War was in progress, I visited
consulate perched on the rocky side
harbor of one of the busiest of the
f South China. I hoped to secure
ıtion regarding a number of little
in the interval of a three-day wait
n steamer connections. Morning
ernoon for two days I called at the
ıte, but always to find only an
mally stupid Eurasian clerk in
from whom I was able to learn little
ıan that the consul was away pheas-
ooting, that he was usually away
nt shooting, and that the best thing
I do would be to keep calling until
ced upon a day when he was not
›heasant shooting. My last morn-
ıad better luck, not because there
y slackening of interest in pheasant
ıg, but because it happened to be
ond day after the November elec-
ı the States and a cable or two was
ed announcing the results. There
dozen or more Chinese — appar-
of the merchant class — waiting
, but the clerk, evidently acting on
passed me in ahead of them. The
dressed in a bath robe, was loung-
nfortably with his feet on his desk.
vays give my own people first call,"
genially, not rising, I supposed, for
disturbing the setter puppy that
eep in his lap. "It never seems to
Chinkie to be kept waiting like it
n American. That bunch outside
ɛen accumulating for three days;
ı day or two more won't make much
ıce. Heard the election news?
landslide, of course. But say —
ighty worried for fear that some-
wrong in my home district. I'm
rincipally because my friends and I
nade that little corner of Indiana
ht' for the last twelve years. I've
ıalf a year's pay in cables trying to
he boys lined up, and if we win out
I've got something a lot better'n
aveyard in sight for me. If we lose
ean another four years of sticking
e, even if they don't chuck me out
y. Last cable says, 'Doubtful but
l.' It's about time now the straight
ıas coming through."

This was the burden of what threatened to be a monologue on "The Troubles of a Consul." Quietly and unobtrusively I tried to swing the drift of it, through war rumors and Peking politics, to trade prospects of South China.

Did it seem likely that construction work would shortly commence on the railroad which rumor said local Chinese were planning to build to the interior?

"A railroad! No hope. Nothing but Chinkies behind it. No need of it, anyway. Besides, it would scare all the pheasants out of the valley, and shooting's the thing that makes life worth living here."

The big iron deposit up the river, with all the fluxing materials close at hand — was anything likely to be done with that?

"Never heard of it. What could the Chinkies do with iron, anyhow? Takes brains and money to exploit properties of that class; Chinkies haven't got the one nor t'other."

"As a chance for American capital and brains, then," I began.

"Tommyrot!" he snorted, contemptuously. "This whole Chinese monkey-show will be gobbled up by Japan and the European Powers within a year, and they'll exploit the thing to suit themselves."

"Coal —" I murmured faintly, for I had been told that there were great outcroppings not ten miles from tide-water and knew that the opening of a good mine in fuelless South China meant a big thing for somebody.

"Coal —" (he spoke with a slightly increased show of interest), "yes, there is coal around here somewhere — we warmed our tiffin with some lumps of it one day when we were shooting — though I don't recall exactly where. But —"

I never learned what the objections were to the coal project, for at that moment the clerk came in with a cable which bore the magic word "Carried," and the "interview" came to an abrupt end.

The setter puppy had a rude awakening this time. "I'm off to shave and change," shouted the consul as he bolted for the door. "Meet me at the club at one o'clock and help me give the rest of the exiles the little U. S. A. celebration I promised in case this event pulled off."

My steamer was sailing at twelve, but before going aboard I dropped in at the British consulate, and gathered in a half hour's chat with that courteous official a considerable amount of practical information; about all, in fact, that I carried away on this occasion regarding that rich and promising section of China.

Six years later, as a member of a commercial commission from the Pacific Coast, I went to the East again, and one of the points on our itinerary was the important South China port of which I have just written. A new consul was in charge there, a young man who had come into the service by way of Peking, after completing the course at the legation as student interpreter. He was a graduate of a Western university and had settled upon the consular service as a definite career.

The exigencies of a hurried schedule allowed us only from daylight till dark at this port, and during that time at least a half dozen receptions, tiffins, and similar functions had to be got through with, included among which, it may be interesting to note, was a short trip by special train over a part of the line of railroad regarding which I had so vainly sought information at our consulate six years before. That enthusiastic young consul was in evidence at every turn, now answering questions regarding the trade outlook or openings for capital, now asking for suggestions and advice on ways to make his efforts more effective. Finally, in the interval between a gala tiffin at a Buddhist temple and a reception at the Tennis Club, he gathered a dozen of us together at the consulate and there, in the same room in which I had so signally failed in my search for a few crumbs of information six years before, he gave us facts and figures — with mimeographed notes on the most salient points — concerning various projects of interest in the hinterland. Among these were included detailed descriptions of important coal and iron deposits.

Naturally, the visit of a semi-officially accredited party which included men of *wealth and influence* was the proper *occasion for an ambitious* official to put his best foot forward; but this particular young man's enthusiasm was no flash in the pan, as I fully satisfied myself later by careful inquiries. I learned, for instance, that not only had he gained a thorough knowledge of the province in which his consulate was situated, but that he had also, at his own expense, made a trip to the Philippines to study trade relations between his port — the point from which most of the Philippine Chinese have emigrated — and the islands of that archipelago. He had published the fruits of his investigations locally in Chinese — also at his own expense — with the result that a steadily increasing improvement in trade between the points in question has been effected.

There were several other types of "undesirables" common to the old régime, the worst one of them men who entered the consular service for selfish ends. I have a number of these in mind, but as there is one in particular who may be convicted on his own frank admission, his case will serve as the most effective instance:

One morning in the fall of 1905 I called upon the American consul in a large Rio Plate city and asked regarding the corn crop that would soon be harvested.

"Corn? Dunno. Don't take no interest in corn, even in Virginia. That's my state. But tobacco — Virginia tobacco crop's goin' to be as 'good as ever.'"

Queries regarding wheat and live stock prospects met with similar rebuffs, but when, quite by chance, I mentioned cotton, the consul's manner changed at once.

"I came down from Entre Rios last week," he said excitedly. "Greatest cotton land and climate in the world. Been in cotton myself an' know what I'm talkin' about. Got an option on 25,000 acres there, an' am goin' to go home an' raise the money to buy it next summer. If I can form a company big enough to buy up the best of the cotton land in Entre Rios an' get the Sea Island seed to start plantin' it, I can have the Car'linas backed off the map in ten years."

I mildly inquired if those same Carolinas didn't happen to be numbered among the United States which he had the honor to represent in Argentina. His reply was

a snort of indignation, half a guffaw
rision.
he Car'linas be d — d! I'm here
e int'rest of 'John B. Smith,' an' I
t give a d — n who knows it. What's
, I don't mind sayin' that any man
d come down here an' live among
dagoes in the int'rest of any one but
elf ought to be shut up in a lunatic
m."
much for some of the bent and broken
in the works of our old consular
ine. Some of them still rattle on
eir old places, but the worst are wear-
ut and dropping out, to be replaced
arts of tried metal. The efficiency
e consular service is not a thing that
be charted, and it would therefore be
ult to say just how much better it
-day than it was six or eight years

Very roughly, however, my ex-
nces may serve as an indicator. On
trips of which I have spoken I was
istently seeking the same kind of
mation, and in the same way — direct
our consuls, or through sources to
h they were able to direct me. On
earlier trip not more than 75 per cent.
e consuls were able — or willing — to
me in the way of acquiring the very
lest information on trade and business
litions beyond such as happened to
been caught in the drag-net of regular
ial routine. On the trip on which I
t with the new régime — and very
ly with that part of it which has come
the service by competitive examina-
— I do not recall a single consulate
which I was unable ultimately to
re authentic information on whatever
ect I desired.

e young men who have become con-
under Civil Service rules, being
ndardized units," so to speak, present
ch diversity of types as did the repre-
atives of the old régime. Almost
out exception, they are either uni-
ity graduates or men who have been
me other branch of Government ser-

That enthusiastic young worker
m I encountered in South China is a
sample of them all, for in Singapore,
utta, Muscat, Bagdad, Beirut, and
ore of other places, *as consuls or* vice-consuls, I found men trying to accomplish the same things in the same way —to further American interests, at home and abroad, by keen, earnest, well-directed, personal effort. One had "circularized" all the importers of American goods in his city, asking for frank complaints on all matters — shipping, credit, etc. — regarding which they were in any way dissatisfied; another was collecting seeds of drought-resisting grains and grasses to send to the Agricultural Department; another had gone out of his way to gather some valuable re-forestation data; another was making a study of natural fertilizers; and another had risked a half year's salary to bring out a low-priced American automobile which had promptly sold a dozen others.

Having at least conversational proficiency in one or more foreign languages, these new men are proving far better "mixers," both in business and official circles, than was the "mono-lingual" consul of the old school. "Mixing" means friends, and friends are the "open sesame" to most of the things that make a consul's work effective, especially on the outermost fringes of civilization. The "hermit" or "recluse" type of consul, the very obvious "stranger-in-a-strange-land" type, was fairly common eight or ten years ago, and perhaps none of the other "undesirables" I have enumerated was more useless. I have not encountered a single one of these under the new order. I did, to be sure, occasionally find the "round post in the square hole" — the man who has qualified in Spanish stationed in Hongkong, or the man who has passed in French stationed in Ecuador — but rarely is there dampened enthusiasm discernible on that account. In most cases of this kind I noted that the young consul was taking his appointment and disappointment philosophically and was doing his best.

The civil service appointees are at present confined almost exclusively to consulates of the ninth, eighth, and seventh classes, or to vice-consulships. The consulates above the seventh class are largely filled with "fit survivors" of the old régime, most of them good men, many of them very good men. Whether or not vacan-

cies of these higher classes are to be filled by promotions from below is the point upon which the future of the service hinges. According to the newspapers the new Secretary of State recently let it be known that he is friendly to the merit system of appointment, promotion, and tenure, in the consular service.

If merit is to weigh in promotion as well as in the original appointment — the service will continue to improve until it is a thoroughly fit instrument for the big work ahead of it; otherwise — if "pull" and "friends at court" ever again influence selections for the highest positions — the service cannot but slip back to its comparatively low level of efficiency of a decade ago. I lay stress upon this point because I have heard, even in the last year, several consuls of conspicuous ability say that this class, or that class, was as high as a man with his influence, or lack of influence, at Washington was likely to be able to attain.

Now and then a consul complains of the inadequacy of his pay or that he has no pension to look forward to on retirement, as his foreign colleagues have; but I am convinced that these considerations have had far less to do in influencing the withdrawal of a number of very able men from the service than has their belief that the higher places — the ones which they had a good right to feel they would be fully qualified to fill at the end of ten or fifteen years of consular experience — were to continue to be handed out according to influence rather than merit.

We now export more than $1,000,000 worth of American manufactures every day. We are starting on the way to our destined place in the van of the world's trading nations, but that way is to be no rose-path. The two great short-cuts to foreign trade, extensive colonies and heavy foreign investments — the advantages of both of which are enjoyed by our greatest rivals, Great Britain, Germany, and France — are not, and will not, be open for us to follow. We shall have to win on the merits and prices of pure goods alone against competitors who enjoy special advantages in many fields. In this fight our consular service combines the functions of the scout and the signal corps, and unless it is kept up to the standard of the rest of the army there is going to be a big waste of powder if not serious reverses.

THE Y. M. C. A.—MAKER OF MEN

ITS GREAT WORK TO CONSERVE YOUNG MANHOOD — APPLYING BUSINESS METHODS TO UPLIFT WORK THE BASIS OF ITS SUCCESS — THE AMAZING GROWTH OF ITS MEMBERSHIP AND OF ITS MORAL INFLUENCE

BY

LEWIS EDWIN THEISS

THREESCORE years ago Mr. T. V. Sullivan, a sea-captain, organized in Boston a new business, modeled after something he had heard existed in England. It was different from any American business then in existence. The new venture began in a very small way, with practically no capital and no backing. As it became a demonstrated success, capital *came to it and men of affairs became interested in its management.*

To-day this organization has thousands of employees. It has 2,196 offices in almost as many American cities. Its expenses are more than $10,000,000 a year. It has recently erected a building in Chicago worth $300,000, one in New York costing $400,000, and another in Cleveland valued at $953,000. It is building an office building in Atlanta at a cost of $442,000, another in Philadelphia valued at $687,000, and a third in Boston at an expenditure of $1,300,000. For five

this corporation has been erecting
h houses at the rate of one every six
All told, it owns 725 buildings. Its
state is worth $70,000,000 and it has
enance funds of $14,000,000 more,
g it a total capital of $84,000,000.
name of this organization is the
g Men's Christian Association. Its
ess is the conservation of America's
ood.
d it is because it is a business that
enormous fund has come to the
. C. A. This great sum has been
by philanthropic investors who were
ng for a "guaranteed investment."
ssurance of returns that they sought
have found in the fact that the
. C. A. is run on a business basis.
irectors are men of exceptional ability.
lants are operated under scientific
gement. Its officers and workers are
ts. First, last, and all the time, the
. C. A. is run, not as a charity, but
business.
nducted thus it gets results. In
the men led to profess Christianity
gh the Y. M. C. A. numbered 12,581.
912 the number had increased to
1. In the same decade its educa-
l classes grew from 29,132 men to
7 — a growth of 131 per cent. The
ly attendance at religious services
ased from 64,000 to 112,000. The
er of men attending gymnasium
s jumped from 89,960 to 175,433, an
ase of 95 per cent. The average
attendance at Y. M. C. A. rooms
ased 127 per cent., being 98,103 in
and in 1912 reaching 223,000.
ng the same ten years the membership
ased from 323,224 to 566,101.
ughout the United States one per-
f every 181 persons, on the average,
member of the Y. M. C. A.
e Y. M. C. A. has chosen for its own
motto of Terence: "Nothing that
rns a man do I deem of indifference
e." That is the reason the Y. M.
is gaining such a tremendous hold
he men of America. That is the
n men are flocking to its standard
ntinuously that buildings cannot be
up fast enough to accommodate
. Go to any great *city, and there*
you will find a Y. M. C. A. building, rising like a lighthouse to keep the feet from stumbling. For understand that the Y. M. C. A. is in no sense a rescue mission to salvage stranded hulks of men. Its purpose is to help men avoid shipwreck.

In port after port American sailors are flocking to the Y. M. C. A. In Brooklyn Mrs. Finley J. Shepard (formerly Miss Helen Gould) erected a navy Y. M. C. A. building that cost $1,000,000. The building was hardly opened before it was overcrowded. Mrs. Russell Sage doubled its size with the same result.

Before this Y. M. C. A. plant was erected, many men from the battleships headed for the dives and the saloons the minute they got ashore. Nowadays 95 per cent. of a battleship's crew make a bee-line for the Y. M. C. A. the minute they set foot on shore in Brooklyn. And they are leaving in the savings fund there $1,000 a day — $1,000 a day that formerly went to dive keepers and saloon men. Altogether the sailors of the navy deposited $815,000 in the Y. M. C. A. savings department during 1912. On 229,000 occasions sailors with shore leave slept in the beds of various Y. M. C. A. buildings. And aboard the battleships plowing the seas are Y. M. C. A. secretaries to continue the work begun on land.

Among the men of the army the work of the Y. M. C. A., which now reaches two thirds of the enlisted men, began, like the work in the navy, at the outbreak of the Spanish-American War. Under governmental authorization 133 large tents were fitted out as Y. M. C. A. stations in the United States, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines. The cost of this work for 1898 was $135,225. So helpful did it prove that at the close of the war officers and soldiers united in urging its continuance. Three army Association buildings were soon erected at a cost of $60,000, and others have followed. Recognizing the Y. M. C. A. as an aid to efficiency in the army, the Secretary of War provided for the housing of army Associations in the post exchange buildings, and for these buildings Congress appropriated $1,500,000.

At Fort Slocum, N. Y., there is an excel-

lent Y. M. C. A. building and a live secretary. "The question has not been how to reach the men," writes Post Secretary Edward Slusser, "but how to care for them as they come. On one Sunday in March the attendance was 3,764. A large number of men have joined this department, but they were mostly transferred to other posts. During the winter 150 men took a stand in the Christian life. During the year, 1,064 have been enlisted in the Soldiers' Bible and Prayer League."

Secretary Slusser said that most of his recruits went out to other posts. Many of them kept in touch with the Y. M. C. A. wherever they went. Here is a letter that came back from one of them who got away up in Alaska:

> There is a little log church down the street where we have services every Sunday evening. The attendance is small, as this part of the country is not thickly settled except by Indians and Malamutes (a kind of wolfish dog). The latter disturb our meetings by howling sometimes. I brought a lot of Christian books with me and still stick to the Christian life. Forty-nine men at this post have been enrolled in the Bible and Prayer League and presented with New Testaments.

Jump from the frigid wastes of Alaska to the mild forests of Louisiana and you will find the Y. M. C. A. men showing the same sort of devotion for their fellows. Here are some notes from one of these Southern lumber camps: "I was drunk every day before I had this building to go to," writes one man. "Since then I have not been drunk a day." "The emergency hospital saves men and has given men a new interest in life." "The home atmosphere awakened home memories, and a man who had not written home for seven years, and another who had not written for eleven years, renewed home ties."

Just what these sobering, elevating influences mean in the field of labor, you will find explained in this statement by a lumber company official: "Machinery is 25 per cent. of the cost; we have perfected that. Labor is 75 per cent.; the Association is making that more efficient."

A trial investment in an Association equipment made by a great Southern lumber company enabled it to maintain a full gang of men, and to produce lumber more cheaply. To quote the superintendent of the camp: "The building paid for itself in six months. A second is now going up." There you have a business association's commentary upon the relation between morality and business efficiency.

When the United States Government started the construction of the Panama Canal, a task in which another nation had already failed, health experts were sent to the Canal Zone to fight mosquitoes, to do away with pest spots, to look after drainage, and in general to make the conditions of life physically wholesome. But President Roosevelt knew that it was just as necessary to make things morally wholesome there as it was to look after bodily welfare. His Canal Commission asked the Y. M. C. A. to take charge of this job of moral sanitation. The Association gladly responded, and at seven points along the twenty-eight mile line of operations, the Government erected and supports Y. M. C. A. buildings. Mr. A. B. Dickson is the general secretary in charge. One official in the Zone has even declared that without the Y. M. C. A. the Canal could never have been dug.

Among the colleges, where there are nearly 800 Associations, among the immigrants, among the Indians, among the colored people, out in the agricultural districts where the population is so sparse that Association work has to be carried on in county organizations, among the railroad men, in the mines, among the cotton mills, and everywhere that men are toiling to earn their daily bread, you will find the same story of moral improvement and increased efficiency.

Read the unsolicited testimony of two workers in a Southern cotton mill. "I did not know one letter from another when I started in night school a year ago," says one. "I smoked twenty cigarettes a day and 'boozed' hard. In a month I decided to quit smoking, then chewing and drinking. My wife and I had never saved a cent. Now we have $200 in the bank. I can now read in the papers what is going on in the world, and I am making a try for the basket-ball team.

THE SPIRIT OF THE "Y. M. C. A."

GATHERING OF YOUNG MEN IN AN ASSOCIATION BUILDING WHERE GOOD FELLOWSHIP AND CLEAN ENTERTAINMENT ARE FREE TO ALL WHO WILL COME

not joined the Association, I be loafing around drug stores time."

"For 14 years I had worked mills without interest or The Y. M. C. A. night school started. New purposes were and training given in the es. Now I have been promoted successive I am a

progress s man ex- principle rlies the M. C. A. "It is h that a od," said "He must or some- he Y. M. first to an good, good for And al- tably the llows the the night

AN INVITATION TO COMRADESHIP

Hence one of the great departments of the Y. M. C. A. is its physical department, where skilled physicians and trained instructors plan out the work and lead men in the exercises that shall make them fit physically for their climb upward.

The educational department is under the general supervision of the international educational secretary, Mr. George B. Hodge, who has under him more than 2,500 specialists who give courses on almost every conceivable subject. In the Y. M. C. A. schools of America almost 70,000 boys and men are fitting themselves to step up a little higher, and they are learning everything from spelling to the operation of a motor car, and from arithmetic to public speaking. They are studying voluntarily to fit themselves for a better grade of work. And most of

CLASS WORK IN A Y. M. C. A. GYMNASIUM
UNDER THE DIRECTION OF EXPERT TEACHERS WHO ARE TRAINED FOR A LIFE-WORK IN THE PHYSICAL UPBUILDING OF MEN

them, following Longfellow's rule for greatness, are "toiling upward in the night." The Y. M. C. A. furnishes the ladder for their advancement.

Particularly are these efforts at helpfulness made in the cities. As typical of the sort of organization the Y. M. C. A. aims to be, let us examine the West Side Branch in New York City, the largest Association in America. Its membership is more than 6,000 and is growing so fast that the organization, though it has three huge buildings valued at more than $1,000,000, finds difficulty in providing accommodations. The secretary of this branch is Mr. Walter T. Diack.

Among the activities of this organization is a gymnasium where more than 3,000 men take regular exercise, under the direction of Dr. Louis R. Welzmiller. The educational department, under the direction of Mr. Edward L. Wertheim, provides instruction for more than 2,600 men and boys. Forty-one instructors are employed for this department. Fifty different courses are given, including instruction in such branches as advertising, automobile operation, business efficiency, business psychology, finance, interior decorating, investments, memory training, motor boat operation, real estate, salesmanship, structural engineering, typewriting, and so on. Some of these courses are remarkable.

An employment department, under the management of Mr. E. G. Denison, finds work for 2,000 men a year. A boys' department, headed by Mr. Philip D. Fagans, gets hold of the youngsters in the grammar schools and interests them in healthful sports and innocent amusements. Mr. Wallace M. Ross, as high school secretary, follows up this work and is rapidly extending the influence of the Association among the high school boys of New York. Mr. E. Graham Wilson, as director of religious work, planned the 997 sessions of the Bible classes that were held in 1912, and arranged for the 2,200 religious services which were attended by a total of more than 130,000 men. A social secretary, Mr. A. E. Gillett, greets

the stranger as he enters the door of this Association, and makes him glad that he has come in.

Typical of the work of the social secretary is this little incident in the life of an old Swiss who in his younger days had been secretary to a Union General in the Civil War, but who now was an inmate of an Old Men's Home. He came into the West Side Branch and asked Mr. Gillett for a piece of paper. Noticing the still beautiful hand that he wrote, Mr. Gillett began to question him. It appeared that at the Old Men's Home he was compelled to earn his board by carting out the furnace ashes, a task for which he no longer had strength. On the sheet of paper he was petitioning the governors of the Home for an easier task. "If they will not give it to me," he said, "I shall have to go to the poorhouse. And that I can never, never do." His petition was refused, but Mr. Gillett, through the employment department, got the old man a position as nurse and comrade for another aged man, with board and lodging and $30 a month in cash as compensation, thus saving him from what he regarded as deep disgrace.

Altogether, thirty secretaries are necessary to carry on the work of this Association. One hundred and twenty men are employed in the regular work. The annual budget exceeds $300,000. In 1912 the attendance at the gymnasium was 128,000. The attendance at religious services was more than 130,000. The religious meetings in shops and factories, conducted by men from this branch, were attended by more than 86,000 men. More than 76,000 books were drawn from the library. And the total attendance at the building during the year was 562,964. To many the Y. M. C. A. shines, "a lamp unto the feet and a light unto the path."

Perhaps nothing better illustrates the

EVERYMAN'S CLUB

THE LOUNGING ROOM OF THE Y. M. C. A. AT CLEVELAND, O., ONE OF THE HUNDREDS OF SUCH PLEASANT PLACES IN WHICH MEN MAY SPEND THEIR LEISURE HOURS UNDER WHOLESOME CONDITIONS

physical evangelism of the Y. M. C. A. than this story of one of New York's leading physicians. Physical exhaustion from overwork, added to grief following the loss of his wife, resulted in melancholia. He began taking exercise at the West Side gymnasium, but soon ceased because of business pressure. Meantime he grew steadily worse. Brooding in the twilight one evening after an unnerving day's labor, he decided to end it all. He could no longer endure the horrors attendant upon his physical condition, nor could he bear to think of leaving his little boy to face the world, an orphan and friendless. So he decided to kill him, too. He sent a servant to a drug store for chloroform.

While he sat there suffering in the twilight, waiting for the return of his messenger, the telephone rang. "I haven't seen you lately," said the voice of Dr. Welzmiller over the wire. "I have been a little anxious over your condition and I called up to learn how you were getting on." The physician said he was in a bad way. "You know the reason," said Dr. Welzmiller. "I promised you you would *get well if you* would follow my orders. I want you to come here t morning and go to work aga will," said the physician, takin hold on hope. He did. To-day well and strong as any one coul be. Through the physical ev of the Y. M. C. A. this life was and to-day this physician is carrying the message of physical hundreds of sufferers.

Another man who came to t Side Branch in a bad way physi an editor of one of New York's papers. The pressure of his w

SAILORS SLEEPING IN EMERGENCY QUARTERS PROVIDED BY THE Y. M.

driven him to drink for stir Obesity and physical degenerat followed. This man, who had re Dr. Welzmiller's work, one nig dered into the building intoxica the same time he retained sens to declare that he wanted to be "I "You can't come here drunk," Welzmiller. "I don't want to," the editor. "I want to stop Can you help me?" "Yes, but y come every day and do as I say."

The man became a member of o "obesity classes." He came eve

LEARNING TO BUILD BOATS

A CLASS IN ONE OF THE DOZENS OF TRADES, CRAFTS, AND ARTS IN WHICH THE Y. M. C. A. GIVES INSTRUCTION TO MORE THAN SIXTY THOUSAND MEN AND BOYS

ing and worked faithfully at the prescribed exercises. He had a melancholy turn of mind, consequent upon his physical condition, and Dr. Welzmiller got the other men in the class to devote themselves, each on a different day, to the help of this editor. They cheered him up mentally while the exercise built him up physically. In a short time the man was down to normal weight and his physical functions were once more perfect. Having no longer need of artificial stimulation, he lost his desire for alcohol. Exercise had made him a teetotaler.

Every morning you will find in this same gymnasium a company of young men that Dr. Welzmiller calls his "temperance class." Search the world over and you will hardly find finer specimens of physical manhood than these same young athletes. They are there to play handball. Mostly they are young men with more or less means and leisure. When they first came, most of them were also more or less convivial. In the West Side Y. M. C. A. there is great rivalry on the handball court. These young men found that alcohol hurt their playing.

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTION IN INTERIOR DECORATION

AN OPPORTUNITY FOR YOUNG MEN TO BETTER THEIR POSITION BY STUDYING AT NIGHT UNDER SKILLED TEACHERS

A MEETING OF COAL MINERS IN PENNSYLVANIA, TO RECEIVE INSTRUCTION

Reversing the facetious motto, they decided that if drinking hurt their handball they would give up drinking.

In fact, self-interest sticks out of the Y. M. C. A. work like quills on a porcupine. You can't touch the Y. M. C. A. at any point without being inoculated with the virus. That is why the membership of the Association is growing at such a tremendous rate.

A saloon-keeper came into the building sheepishly one day and inquired if he would be permitted to join the real estate class. He found the work extremely interesting and helpful. He joined the finance forum. Next he got into the memory training class. One night he wandered into Dr. Fagnani's Bible class. From an uninteresting abstraction religion suddenly became to him a thing of

A NOONDAY RELIGIOUS MEETING OF THE Y. M.

IN FIRST AID TO THE INJURED, UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE Y. M. C. A.

concrete and intense interest. Dr. Fagnani had expounded the thing in a new light. The saloon-keeper quit his business. He became a constant attendant at the Y. M. C. A. Now you may see him there almost any night, doing something to help young men along, and very evidently getting an intense enjoyment out of life.

As Mr. Wertheim and Mr. Diack both said, it is by trying to be useful that the Y. M. C. A. gets its hold on men. The West Side Branch has an emergency fund which it uses to help men in financial straits. Its employment agency will get a man a job. Its educational department will fit him to get a better job.

The educational department is willing to enter any new field where it can be of help. At the time this article is written

C. A. IN A MACHINE SHOP AT DAYTON, O.

AROUND THE FIRE AT A SUMMER CAMP FOR BOYS

PART OF THE Y. M. C. A.'S WORK TO GIVE BOYS A BETTER CHANCE FOR PHYSICAL AND MORAL GROWTH

the city of New York is about to appoint a number of new dock masters and some additional food inspectors. Heretofore, these positions have been handed out with little reference to the appointee's fitness. Nowhere in the city was there a place where aspirants for the positions could be trained for the work. The matter was put up to Mr. Wertheim. He immediately opened two new courses. Where do you think he found his instructors? He got officials from the dock department and the health department who consented to give lectures to the new men. This leaven may go far toward leavening the whole service.

Such wonderful results in helping men are not to be had haphazard. The Y. M. C. A. gets results because it is run on a business basis. Nothing is left to chance. The man who meets you at the door when you enter a Y. M. C. A. building, the instructor who leads you in your exercises in the gymnasium, the teacher who guides you in your educational work, all are experts. They have had the necessary mental and psychological training to be able to handle men.

A FLAG-RAISING CELEBRATION

BY A TROOP OF THE BOY SCOUTS, AN ORGANIZATION WHICH RECEIVED MUCH OF ITS FIRST ENCOURAGEMENT FROM THE Y. M. C. A.

A CHINESE Y. M. C. A. GYMNASIUM CLASS
AN EXAMPLE OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK IN THE ORIENT

In the summer time Y. M. C. A. workers attend great conferences or summer schools like the school at Silver Bay, on Lake George, where they study Association methods. At Springfield, Mass., the Y. M. C. A. maintains the greatest technical college of its kind in the world. The technique taught there is the technique of man. Here hundreds of students study man physically, mentally, morally, and historically. They learn all the games played by men. There are two large gymnasiums, two athletic fields, a swimming pool, and an enormous laboratory, with 2,500 boys as subjects to work with. These subjects are town boys who come there to work and play. The Y. M. C. A. students lead them and work with them and study them just as other biologists study so many rabbits or so many guinea-pigs. The result is that the trained Y. M. C. A. men know just how a man's mind works and why. They are experts in psychology as well as in athletics and in other subjects. And that is the reason they are so wonderfully successful in getting such a strong hold on the men who come into the Y. M .C. A. buildings

THE ASSOCIATION'S BUILDING IN THE CITY OF MEXICO
PHOTOGRAPHED AFTER THE RECENT REVOLUTION AND SHOWING THE DAMAGE DONE BY THE ARTILLERY DUEL BETWEEN THE FORCES OF MADERO AND DIAZ

A BUILDING FOR AMERICAN SAILORS

THE NAVAL Y. M. C. A. IN BROOKLYN, BUILT BY MRS. FINLEY J. SHEPARD (FORMERLY MISS HELEN GO
AT A COST OF $1,000,000, AND USED BY 90 PER CENT. OF THE SAILORS WHO COME TO BROOKLYN

throughout the country. That is why, moreover, men of means who understand the necessity of building up a virile manhood in America have backed the Y. M. C. A. with their time and their money. They know that through the Y. M. (they will get results.

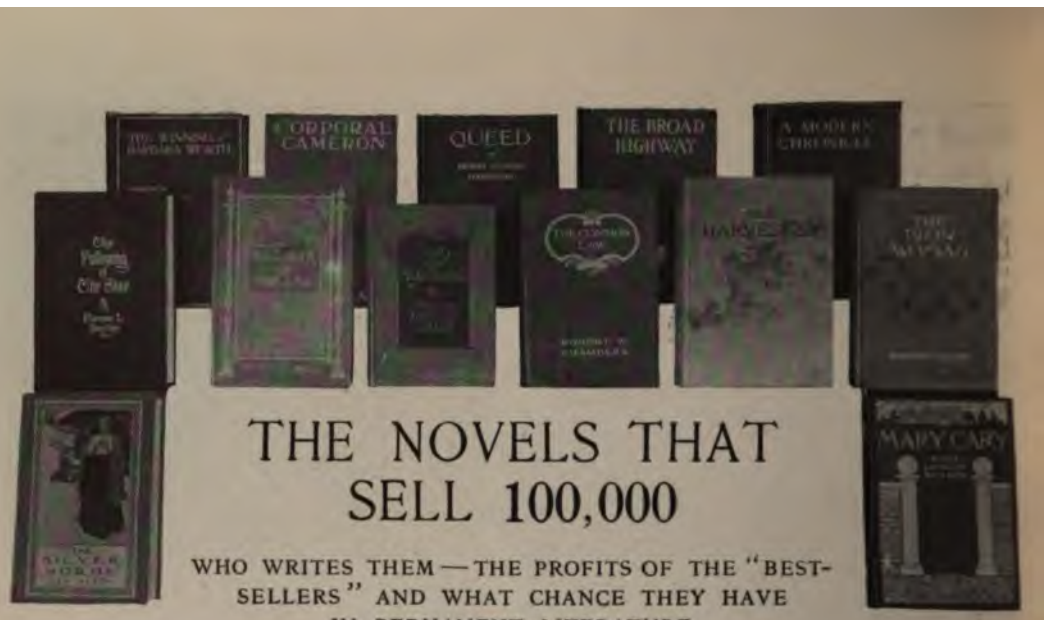
Who shall say how great is the si cance of this movement? "A city (as well dispense with its police system

AN OUTPOST OF Y. M. C. A. INFLUENCE IN ALASKA

department, or school system as with this Association." declared former Mayor Rhett, of Charleston, in discussing the work of the Y. M. C. A. in that city. The cashier of a bank in the West writes this: "We have many things in our city in which we take a just pride, but we consider the railroad Y. M. C. A. our gross asset, for it has made our town better and our railroad men more reliable. It solves many of our commercial problems." It solves these problems by the simple process of making men of its members. That is the whole end and aim of the Y. M. C. A. It is seeking to save that which may be lost. It is trying to conserve the manhood of America. It is succeeding because it has placed manhood conservation on a business basis.

SERVING AMERICAN SAILORS IN RIO JANEIRO

DURING THE BATTLESHIP FLEET'S CRUISE AROUND THE WORLD IN 1908, BY HELPING THEM FIND THEIR WAY ABOUT AND BY SAFEGUARDING THEIR AMUSEMENTS



THE NOVELS THAT SELL 100,000

WHO WRITES THEM — THE PROFITS OF THE "BEST-SELLERS" AND WHAT CHANCE THEY HAVE IN PERMANENT LITERATURE

BY

ARTHUR W. PAGE

MR. GEORGE P. BRETT, the head of the American publishing house, The Macmillan Co., closed a recent article upon "Book Publishing and Its Present Tendencies" with these words:

> Novels of merit and value, representing honest work and the real convictions of their authors, still from time to time make their appearance, but it is seldom indeed that one of these finds its way into the ranks of the "six best-sellers." Their appeal is to that part of the public which still discriminates in its reading, a smaller percentage of the whole, I fear, at present, than in any recent period of our history. One is reminded of the remark of one of our best critics, himself an *author of many books* well known to lovers of the best literature: "I should consider myself disgraced if I had written a book which in these days had sold one hundred thousand copies."

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MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL
AUTHOR OF "A MODERN CHRONICLE"

Such remarks are as common in literary circles as fulsome eulogies of these same best-sellers are common in the book reviews, but the public has no very definite information of what books sell 100,000 copies. As a rule it has no accurate record of the authors whom it has brought into disgrace with the critics by so lavishly buying their books.

Between January 1, 1910, and January 1, 1913, there were published new books of fiction by thirteen authors that sold as many as 100,000 copies in the

Beach.
ert W. Chambers.

MR. REX BEACH
AUTHOR OF "THE SILVER HORDE"

ston Churchill.
h Connor (Rev. Charles William
n).

MR. HENRY SYDNOR HARRISON
AUTHOR OF "QUEED"

"ELEANOR HALLOWELL ABBOTT"
AUTHOR OF "MOLLY MAKE-BELIEVE"

MRS. GENE STRATTON-PORTER
AUTHOR OF "THE HARVESTER"

several other names as well. Mr. George Barr McCutcheon, if his last book did not quite reach the 100,000 mark, has written books in the past that did, and undoubtedly will in the future. Mr. Vaughan Kester's "Prodigal Judge" and the books of Mr. Basil King (generally recognized as the anonymous author of "The Inner Shrine," "The Street Called Straight," and "The Wild Olive") sold within a few thousands of the round figure taken arbitrarily for the standard of this article. Nor does this exhaust the list of writers whose books belong in this

MRS. KATE LANGLEY BOSHER
AUTHOR OF "MARY CARY"

class. But at least it is a definite record of one particular period and has the one merit of being founded on concrete facts of the success of those who have best succeeded in pleasing the public's taste in the last three years. And it is about such a list of authors of 100,000-selling books as any average three years would produce.

These thirteen authors, divided as equally as may be between men and women, are fair samples of the successful writers of fiction. They are not of a single type.

and. Only one of the thirteen, Mrs. Stratton-Porter, was born or lives ndiana, usually hailed the mother thors as Virginia is of Presidents.

"MYRTLE REED"
AUTHOR OF "A WEAVER OF DREAMS"

MRS. MARGARET DELAND
AUTHOR OF "THE IRON WOMAN"

eir formal education also varies

MR. HAROLD BELL WRIGHT
AUTHOR OF "THE WINNING OF BARBARA WORTH"

MR. ROBERT W. CHAMBERS
AUTHOR OF "THE COMMON LAW"

elists. Mr. Henry Sydnor Harrison and Dr. Gordon are the only two of the thirteen that attended any famous institution of liberal arts. Dr. Gordon is a graduate of Toronto University and Mr. Harrison of Columbia.

The financial reward of writing one of these far-selling books is not so great as the earnings of the managers of great commercial and manufacturing establishments, but it does not suffer in comparison with the incomes of successful men in other professions which depend *upon the individual's*

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"RALPH CONNOR"
AUTHOR OF "CORPORAL CAMERON"

personal effort without office force, factory, or shop. Not counting the income from serialization of the books in magazines, or their sale in reprint editions, the author of a novel that sells 100,000 copies receives in royalties from that sale about $25,000. The retail price of these books ranges from $1 for a small book like "Molly Make-Believe" to $1.50 for a large novel such as Winston Churchill's "A Modern Chronicle." Authors' royalties usually vary from 10 to 20 per cent. of the retail price of the book. Naturally the

successful authors demand the highest royalties. The minimum money return from the writing of a novel of a 100,000 sale is about $25,000, and occasionally there comes along a book with a larger sale on which the royalties amount to as much as $75,000.

For a 100,000 sale of the average novel, for which the author receives approximately $25,000, the public pays about $135,000. The retail bookseller takes about $42,500 for his service in getting the book into the hands of the public. The publisher spends another $25,000 getting the books into the hands of the bookseller, and in creating a demand for them by advertising. That leaves to the publisher, for the expenses of manufacture and for his profit, about $42,500. In other words, when a reader pays $1.35 for a novel he pays just half the price for the publisher's and bookseller's effort in making him buy it. This rough approximation would not hold true in books of a small sale, for the original cost of setting them in type and making plates to print them from would make the cost of manufacture much higher. These inexorable figures explain why publishers print so small a proportion (perhaps two in a hundred) of the books that are offered to them. The public, however, often feels that even more restriction would not be amiss.

More interesting than the financial side of the publication of these books is the individual history of some of these profitable, much read, enjoyed, and maligned "best sellers." Six of the thirteen authors on this list had established themselves before 1910. Margaret Deland, Myrtle Reed, Rex Beach, Robert W. Chambers, Winston Churchill, and Ralph Connor each had a public of a 100,000 book buyers ready to receive their work. It was not entirely the same public. There were more sentimentalists in Myrtle Reed's public, and more thoughtful persons in Mrs. Deland's, or at least, if the same people enjoyed the books of both authors, they enjoyed them on somewhat different sides of their natures. Winston Churchill's historical and political novels probably appeal to the same public that enjoys the fresh and adventurous out-door *stories of* Rex Beach and Ralph Connor. It is probably a little different public that purchases the books of Robert W. Chambers. But, however different or identical their publics were, these authors all had their set of 100,000 readers before 1910. The other seven on the list have come into particular prominence in the last three years.

In the latter part of 1909 there appeared on the list of G. P. Putnam's Sons, publishers, "The Rosary," by Florence L. Barclay. In the book trade that announcement caused no particular interest, nor did it mean much to the public. The publishers had no extraordinary hopes for the book, and probably even the author in her most sanguine moments never expected it to sell 100,000 copies. The booksellers did not expect a great public demand, either. The ninety and nine books that start that way, if fairly successful, sell perhaps 4,000, less likely 8,000, and stop there. But "The Rosary," though it started slowly, sold itself, created its own demand by the mouth to mouth recommendations of its readers, and this demand grew faster than the publishers could supply it, for its increasing sale constantly surprised them. It had itself caught the public fancy and, after that, the booksellers and the publishers helped it to continue its success until now it has sold nearly 500,000 copies, exclusive of cheap editions, for as yet none have been issued.

The next book which Mrs. Barclay wrote, "The Following of the Star," published during 1910, has sold nearly 200,000 copies, though it did not equal the phenomenal record of "The Rosary." Since then she has had published three other books: "The Mistress of Shenstone," "Through the Postern Gate," and "The Upas Tree." She is almost as prolific as her books are popular.

Mrs. Porter, whose novel, "The Harvester," published in 1910, has sold more than 250,000 copies, caught the public imagination with her writing in a way not altogether unlike Mrs. Barclay. Her publishers, believing in the destined popularity of her first big success, "Freckles," used every possible means to get the book stores to buy it generously. The book stores responded generously but the pub-

lic did not. It seemed as if the public would never absorb even the first 10,000 copies which the publishers' enthusiasm had induced the book stores to buy. Some of the stores began "unloading" their stock at reduced prices. About this time the publishers agreed with the reprint publishers, Grosset & Dunlap, to put a 50-cent edition in their hands. In this form "Freckles" got its real start, and it soon became so popular that the regular trade edition sold much more than enough to justify the publishers' original enthusiasm. The success of this and the following book, "The Girl of the Limberlost," gave Mrs. Porter such a measure of popularity that "The Harvester" sold 100,000 copies in four months.

Mr. Henry Sydnor Harrison's "Queed," perhaps the most notable success of 1912, is a first book. Mr. Harrison had spent infinite time and labor on it. He submitted it to a New York publisher who liked the book but suggested that it be shortened. Mr. Harrison then sent it to Houghton, Mifflin & Co., where it came into the hands of Mr. Ferris Greenslet. He boldly announced to his associates that he had a "find," a book of imagination and good workmanship that would catch the popular fancy.

This spontaneous enthusiam of Mr. Greenslet's carried conviction to the selling organization of the house, and "Queed" entirely fulfilled Mr. Greenslet's prophecy. It was literally a book in a thousand, for thousands of manuscripts of novels go to publishers every year. Perhaps two in every hundred are published. Of those that are published, by no means half sell 10,000 copies. Not one in a thousand of new authors' books sell 100,000 copies.

Mr. Jeffery Farnol, the author of "The Broad Highway," had written a half dozen books before this one, but they had not been extraordinarily successful. On the contrary, there was a book manuscript of his resting in another publisher's safe at the time that Little, Brown & Co. brought out "The Broad Highway," which merrily went its way among the *"best sellers."*

"The Broad Highway," "Queed," "The Silver Horde," "The Iron Woman," "A Modern Chronicle," and the rest — all these books were helped into popularity by advertising. But none of them, probably no two of them together, had as much advertising as "The Winning of Barbara Worth." The Book Supply Company, which published it, publishes practically no fiction except the books of Harold Bell Wright. Three or four of them had demonstrated their popularity. When "The Winning of Barbara Worth" came up for publication the company decided to make it not only a success but a tremendous success. It was advertised upon a more lavish scale than was ever seen before, and it sold more than any other novel of this three-year period. Whether the extra sale paid the publisher and author for the cost of stimulating it no one can tell accurately, for it is impossible to know what the sale would have been had the advertising been only of the normal amount. The extra-advertising plan has been tried with many other books without success. In the case of "The Winning of Barbara Worth," however, one thing is very certain. The headway which the book gained in popular favor in the edition in which it was originally published insures it another great sale in a cheaper reprint edition; and the sale of books in reprint editions has a much larger significance than is usually accorded it.

"Mary Carey," by Mrs. Kate Langley Bosher, and "Molly Make-Believe," by Eleanor Hallowell Abbott, both small books, were also the first books of these authors, although Mrs. Coburn (Eleanor Hallowell Abbott) had an enviable reputation as a short story writer before this book appeared.

Many of the literary critics, after the fashion of the one quoted by Mr. Brett at the beginning of this article, scoff at these books, belittle their literary qualities, and predict for them a sure decline to oblivion. It is a safe enough prediction about any particular book, because books that last in English literature come so infrequently that they would make up only a negligible proportion of the lists of books that are popular with the public against critical advice, or of those which

are ignored by the public in spite of critical admiration. But the inference in these prophecies that the best sellers above all others are doomed to oblivion is certainly erroneous. The ultimate test of literature is the continuous appreciation of the public; and the only practical way of testing people's appreciation of a book is to offer it for sale and see the way that they buy and read it. Because the public in 1910 buys 100,000 copies of Mrs. Deland's "Iron Woman" it does not follow that in 1920 "The Iron Woman" will still be selling, and yet it is certain that it has a better chance of being still a "live" book in 1920 than a book that does not even get the public's fancy when it first appears. Without any intention of comparing Mrs. Deland or any other of these successful modern authors with Dickens and Scott, it is interesting to remember that their novels were the best-sellers of their day, and moreover that both of these men wrote with their eyes upon the money return of their writing. Like many a modern author, they had to.

Coming down to more recent times, General Lew Wallace's "Ben Hur" was published in 1880. Whatever the critics may say of it, it is well on its way toward becoming at least a fixed part of American literature. Thirty-three years ago, when it came out, it was a great success. People have been buying it and reading it ever since. This year Harper & Brothers, its publishers, contracted to deliver a million copies of it to Sears, Roebuck & Co., of Chicago. And this house will sell it to the public. In 1895, the first year that "The Bookman" published its list of "best-sellers," George Du Maurier's "Trilby" led the list. In 1896 came Sienkiewicz's "Quo Vadis" and Sir Gilbert Parker's "The Seats of the Mighty." These books continually find their way into new and appreciative hands. They have not lived long enough to justify any prophecies of their continued longevity, but at least they are upon the eligible list. They are nearly twenty years old and still alive, and there is no doubt that their successful beginning was chiefly instrumental in giving them such measure of life as they have had.

And then what about such books as "Uncle Tom's Cabin?" The critics' standards of literature to which modern successful novels are asked to conform would condemn this book. Certainly another novel on slavery in every way as good, if published now, could hardly hope for the tremendous sale of "Uncle Tom's Cabin." It would almost certainly die, although "Uncle Tom's Cabin" with its great success behind it, still lives. Because of the peculiar conditions under which this book came out, it got a tremendous grip upon the public imagination. It gained such a momentum in people's minds that it has become an integral part of American life. Being brought out at the psychological time that would make it a "best seller" made this book a part of American literature.

Those who are seriously interested in what American novels will continue to be read by successive generations might well check up the opinions of the literary critics with the reports of librarians and with the publishers' sales of books of by-gone years, especially cheaper editions brought out by the original publishers or by reprint houses such as Grosset & Dunlap and A. L. Burt & Co. On these lists Scott, Cooper, Kipling, Conan Doyle, Harold Bell Wright, Sir Gilbert Parker, Robert W. Chambers, Winston Churchill, and F. Hopkinson Smith, and a host of others, all appear. They have sold continuously since publication. Probably by no means all these latter-day best-sellers will live as long as the books of the other authors on the list have lived, but they in turn were weeded out from a larger number in their generation. But this much is certain: a book that the public takes unto itself upon publication will have an opportunity to go at least one more step toward permanency in the reprint lists — an opportunity which few books that do not succeed at first ever gain.

Not all the statesmen who are hailed as great men in their time remain so in history, but history seldom makes great a man without prominence among his contemporaries. Literature treats men much the same as history treats men.

THE TRUTH ABOUT "THE LITTLE RED SCHOOL"

HUNDREDS OF RURAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS TAUGHT IN LOG CABINS — MANY THOUSANDS OF INEXPERIENCED TEACHERS — A SIGNIFICANT GOVERNMENT REPORT

THE little red schoolhouse — the public school in the country — has an affectionate place in the minds of the American people, but otherwise it is sadly neglected. There are 5,000 country schools still taught in primitive log houses. In thirty-two states there are 147,227 one-teacher schools, and under this one teacher are boys and girls in all stages of advancement, from beginners to those who have had eight or nine years' work. More than 55 per cent. of the young people from 6 to 20 years old (inclusive) — about 17,000,000 of them — live in the country or in towns of less than 2,000 inhabitants. According to a recent report by Mr. A. C. Monahan, of the United States Bureau of Education:

It is generally true, for the United States as a whole, that rural schools lack intelligent and economical management, adequate supervision, and efficient teaching. The majority of them are housed in uncomfortable buildings, unsuitable from almost every standpoint, without proper furniture or facilities for heating, ventilating, and lighting; without adequate provisions for guarding the health and morals of the children, and with comparatively little equipment for teaching.

Few realize the magnitude of the rural education problem now before us. It is not generally known that illiteracy in rural territory is twice as great as in urban territory. This is true, notwithstanding that thousands of illiterate immigrants are crowded in the great manufacturing and industrial centres. The illiteracy among native-born children of native parentage is more than three times as great as among native children of foreign parentage, largely on account of the lack of opportunities for education in rural America, in which comparatively few immigrants live. Few know that about 60 per cent. of those in rural schools are in one-teacher country schoolhouses, and that the instructional work in the average one-teacher country school is of very low grade.

In Illinois there are 10,615 ungraded schools, with an average enrollment of 27 pupils in every school. In 1910, ten of these schools were still in log houses; there were 3,063 teachers who were teaching their first year, and there were 3,448 teachers who had less education than the equivalent of a completed high school term.

In Iowa, a state of particular prosperity, the State Department of Education classifies the rural school buildings as, approximately, 60 per cent. "good," 30 per cent. "fair," 10 per cent. "poor"; and 5 per cent. are without suitable and separate outhouses. In 1910, there were 12,640 one-room country schools. There were 4,676 teachers who were teaching their first year and 2,500 more who had had less than one year's experience. The schools were open on the average of eight months a year, but there were so many changes in the teaching force that the average length of each teacher's service was five months a year.

Arkansas has 4,796 common-school districts, in which there are 6,295 schools. More than 5,000 of these are one-room buildings — 120 being log buildings. The average value of the one-room school buildings and grounds is $352. The average cost of maintaining an Arkansas school in 1911, including the teacher's salary, was $286.

Such statistics show plainly one of the reasons for the lack of progress in country life; the article that follows gives in concrete form a clear picture of some of the conditions back of these statistics.

A YEAR IN A COUNTRY SCHOOL

GETTING A JOB — FIFTY-SEVEN PUPILS TO ONE TEACHER — A STRUGGLE FOR DISCIPLINE

BY

WILLIAM H. HAMBY

HUMAN nature may be alike the world over, but it is certainly laid on thicker in some spots than others; and if there is any one place where it s out in regular knobs and knots of al peculiarity and weird unreasonss, it is where it appears in the ry school.

ry child ought to be educated along ecial bent; every child ought to be t to earn a living; every child should itly led up the beautiful paths to health, love, and happiness, but — s might more nearly be possible were six expert psychologists for every instead of sixty expert psychologists ery teacher. The schools are very, faulty, and will be so long as the en in them are the sons and daughters ir parents. And yet nothing else vilization has evolved is half so used we have few institutions whose ness could be so much improved.

ly on the first Wednesday morning in I set off through the hills on horseto hunt a school in the remote hill y of the Ozarks. There were five applicants for every school; and the who aspired to teach had to get e very day after the annual school g and slip on school directors, or y them to get them even to look pocketful of recommendations — had a pocketful. And then he had t to the director like a life insurance to a good but slippery risk.

d been reading a "Psychology for ers," and had persuaded myself that not for the twenty-five a month was to be a teacher — but for the could do. I even forgot for a time t was the hope of the twenty-five a month that prompted me to read the "Psychology for Teachers."

The Cotton Tail school — the first at which I applied — had decided to keep its old teacher. I was deeply disappointed. But I next felt that my mission was to help out the Splitlog district.

The first director I approached in the Splitlog district was Dan Combs, president of the school board. Dan had short, grizzled whiskers, and cleared his lands with goats, and bought and sold mules. It was evident from afar that he was a man of authority, and very busy. I approached him timidly and he brusquely told me there were other applicants and to leave my application and it would be considered in its regular order. The next director was Tom Wilson. Tom was breaking a piece of new ground, but was still in a good humor. I talked quite confidentially to him — I told him of my extensive learning, of my natural aptitude to teach, of my soaring ambitions, of my yearnings to give Splitlog a school that would be the envy of the whole county. He listened to me with mild and speculative interest, and I thought I had him. But when I finished and waited for him to pledge me his vote, he looked evasively across the "new-ground" field and told me to leave my application and it would be considered.

"But look here," I said, "I am not after consideration, What I want is a school."

This startled him into frankness, for he told me confidentially that it was his opinion they would employ Dan Combs's niece. "He's president of the board, you know, and is set on having her. She ain't much of a teacher — but you know, well ——"

I turned away from Splitlog, but I had picked up one piece of wisdom that I

have kept in storage ever since: Beware of presidents with relatives who want jobs!

I tried three or four other schools. Some of them talked encouragingly; and all of them were willing to "consider" my application — if I would only go off and leave it. But that did not fool me. I had learned that a director who was not for me positively was for somebody else.

As I was riding home, a voice, a pleasant, hopeful voice, broke into my glooming. A neighbor woman was speaking to me from her yard where she had been digging among her flowers. I am sure she had watched me from down the road, and had come into the yard on purpose.

"Well, did you get a school?" she asked, brightly.

"No."

"Suppose you go over and try the Bean Ridge school. They don't usually have as many applicants as other schools, and they never keep their last year's teacher."

"I believe I will." In five minutes my horse was trotting up the right fork of the road in the direction of Bean Ridge.

I did not stop to inquire why Bean Ridge usually had few applicants; nor why they never had the same teacher twice. If they paid little wages, I did not expect much; if it was a hard school, all the more glory in conquering it. I timed my arrival so I would stay over night at Sam Watson's, one of the school board.

Sam was a good-natured, inoffensive fellow of the sort who half promises everything and wholly does nothing. But I got him to talk for an hour on how he raised the big pumpkin that took the prize at the county fair; he even told me about the rainstorm that came up the day after he planted the seed; and of the shock of corn that stood just west of it when he decided to take it to the fair. Then I told him feelingly of some of the big pumpkins that I intended to raise in the Bean Ridge school, and how I would plant the seeds of ambition and "spur" them on, until the children of the Bean Ridge school should be known from the Atlantic to the Pacific. I got on good terms with Watson's seven children, and helped feed the hogs.

Sam promised next morning that he wouldn't do anything "agin" me.

"But will you vote for me?" I insisted.

"Yes," he said, guardedly, "if the rest will."

I worked on the rest, Jim Samuels and Melvin Robins, all day, and got them to agree to have a meeting of the board that night.

They met at dusk on the steps of the little, old, unpainted, one-room schoolhouse. I threw myself into the supreme effort; told them what I'd do — and what I would not allow. A country school is strong, theoretically, on order.

The three farmers listened a little uneasily. Sam kept picking at a splinter on a piece of weatherboarding, Robins gouged holes in the steps with his knife, and Samuels searched frequently in all his pockets for a missing plug of tobacco. When I finished they went aside and consulted. My head was burning, and my heart pounding. Directly Robins left the others and came back to me.

"Would you consider it at twenty dollars a month?"

My heart beat hopefully. That meant I could have it at twenty. But I set my face resolutely against it. I told him no; that no ambitious, well-educated young man whose heart was in his work, who meant to make teaching a profession instead of a mere stepping stone, who was teaching solely for the love of it, could afford to teach for less than twenty-five.

They came back pretty soon and said, "Well, I guess you can consider yourself hired."

"And be sure you make 'em mind," cautioned Robins.

"And don't let the big 'uns run over the little 'uns," admonished Sam.

"That's right," put in Jim Samuels, "make 'em toe the line — lick 'em, lick 'em like the dickens."

I never believed much in presentiments. But, odd and unexplainable as it may seem, that first Monday morning when I stood before that school and rapped for order I had a strange premonition that I could not do all I had once dreamed that I would do in my ideal school — at least not right away. And I felt a vague, uneasy wish that my beloved psychologist

who wrote such beautiful English about the duty of the teacher to the tender, budding soul of youth, were beside me to tell me just how to begin. But he was not there; and it has been convincingly borne in upon me since that he never was.

I had hoped for a good attendance the first day. There were fifty-seven; which was not at all bad considering that most of the "big 'uns" had to stay at home to help cut corn, make molasses, and sow wheat. They would come on later — about the time the frost was on the pumpkin and the arithmetic class was in compound fractions.

I made a feeling little speech about the "great opportunities that lay before us," and told them what a good thing education was for the human system and cited James A. Garfield and Abraham Lincoln as examples; mentioning that these distinguished victims of assassins' bullets and orators' eulogies were once as ordinary as any one of the boys present, which was pretty hard on my illustrious examples.

However, I could see great promise in my pupils. They were vigorous and had come in close touch with the soil, at both ends. In spite of my beautiful theories, at the first tap of the bell I had subconsciously decided that whatever praying I did should be done with my eyes open. And while my soul and psychology kept my tongue going on the beauties and delights ahead of us in the flowery fields of learning, my eyes were busy picking out the most salient bumps of human nature and sizing them up,

On the off side in the extreme northwest corner sat a boy I instantly called "Chuck." He was about fourteen years old, chunky, with a thick neck, a pug nose, and a head that looked like a knot sawed from a black-jack tree. Straight across the room in the southeast corner sat "Slimmy"— nineteen years old, six feet tall, with a long nose, a loose skin, a mournful face, and hair the color of dead broom grass.

As my words glowed with the joy of school, Chuck's pug nose went a fraction nearer his forehead, his left eyelid lifted slowly, cautiously, his eye crept circumspectly around until it met Slimmy's, and then the eyelid dropped.

I was disturbed. I was not gripping the two with hoops of admiration — and I wanted the thing to be unanimous. But I went on. Most of the school were listening — at least they were doing nothing else. Some stared at me curiously; some looked blankly straight ahead; here and there was a dropped jaw. Half way down the aisle was a slender girl of fifteen — almost grown, with large, inspirational eyes, brown hair, a clear, refined face, and a winsome mouth. She was listening with eager attention, and I saw dreamy aspirations were stirring within her. Her name should be Eudora. And in the last seat in the centre aisle, trying to conceal the shabbiest and scantiest garb in the room, was a boy of eleven or twelve, whose eyes, burning with a great yearning, were fixed on mine; pale, thin-faced, underfed, but with a high forehead and sensitive but resolute lips. His name should be Luke.

And so school opened. There were to be no rules — save one — "Do Right." How very simple; how easy! Do away with a hundred thousand thick, fat, dull, twisted volumes of revised statutes; and just pass one law — "Do Right."

It worked beautifully the first day. But as I returned that evening to my boarding place with books to review on one arm, and dinner pail on the other, I felt unaccountably tired. There had been a strain in the day's work my teachers' psychology had not mentioned.

I was tired but relieved. Nothing dreadful had happened all day. And in spite of a far-off fluttering sense of uneasiness, I was happy, for as I walked the ridge road shadowed by over-reaching oak and walled by hazel and sumach, I saw more vividly than ever the vision of the academy walls, the college campus, and the wide world of achievement. I should succeed with this school. The children should love me, the parents honor me — and better paying districts call me. I had a little tussle with my conscience whether I should give up my well begun work here next year, and go to a bigger school at better wages.

In the first day I had discovered several things. The biggest problem was —"How

was I in six hours a day to teach eight fundamental branches of learning to fifty-seven pupils, and do it according to every one's individual bent?" I had discovered that I must have twenty-seven recitations every day. And with a class of fifteen in the fourth reader and fifteen minutes for recitation, how was I to teach Tommy to follow his historical bent in reading, lead Jimmy to love Robert Louis Stevenson, and cultivate Mary in literature, and give Bob the desired start in political research? In my dumb, puzzled groping at that time I could see no way of doing anything to that class but teach it the fourth reader.

A country school? To be sure; but isn't two thirds of the public school system in the country? Maybe there are fewer pupils in some rural schools; and yet in the next school that I taught I had ninety-seven, with thirty in the primer class, and a class of algebra and physiology after school hours. And I may add right here, that in all my subsequent teaching I found in varying degree the same difficulties, the same problems, as in this first school.

I made more discoveries the next day and the next. Before the week was out I had it borne in on me that to watch fifty-seven restless, nondescript descendants of Adam and Eve, Judas Iscariot, Lucretia Borgia, and a few other worthy unworthies, and at the same time assign and hear twenty-seven recitations every six hours, was a pretty big job. There was only one thing to be done; nail my flag to the masthead of McGuffey's reader and Ray's arithmetic, and go in soul and body to fight human nature and the demons of ignorance. I knew that unless I taught them to read, the door would be shut on most of them. In a few years — three or five — nearly all of them would be out of school; and unless they had learned to follow the printed page and get its meaning, the agricultural paper, the mechanics' journal, the newspaper, the religious journal, the magazine, would fail to carry their helpful message to them; and their mental development would be arrested at the very beginning. I had to teach them how to write, and, of course, I had to *teach arithmetic.* If I didn't "learn 'em *to do their sums" thoroughly* I would be everlastingly and eternally damned in the Bean Ridge district — and all adjacent territory.

I was glad when Friday and four o'clock came. Even now I never hear a clock strike four that I do not unconsciously lean back and say "Thank the Lord," and Friday late in the afternoon will be my favorite day as long as I live. The school had been curious and quiet Monday; not so curious nor quiet Tuesday; restless Thursday; and by Friday the noise had grown to resemble the flight of locusts. When the bell rang Friday at afternoon recess, Slimmy came in several minutes late; and, glancing out of the window, I saw Chuck throwing up a ball to get one more whack at it with his bat. The B geography class was reciting when he sauntered in and dropped with an audible thump into his seat. When I looked around I caught a very distinct wink at Slimmy. I did not say anything. I would wait until Monday and think it over.

As I returned to my boarding place that afternoon I felt more than a faint subconscious flutter of uneasiness. I had been very kind, very reasonable, and gentle with the pupils. Yet there had been too much noise the last two days. I must do something about it; and you are always uncomfortable when you have to do something about it.

My days were passed in aggravated anxiety and my nights in feverish dread. I would dodge a member of the school board as though he had the bubonic plague. I expected every Friday to get a request to resign.

At length I rose up and determined to take radical steps. I promulgated a rule: "There shall be no whispering." Not a word. The slightest breath that shaped itself into an audible request for a "pencil" should be punished rigorously. That would make it easy. Nobody could accuse me of partiality. Everybody who whispered would be kept in at recess.

This was the middle of October. During all my worries and anxieties there had been a few consolations — at least two. Luke, the thin-faced, underfed, shabby boy in the back seat in the aisle row, ate up his studies like a locust on a green limb. I

aw such a fierce passion for knowl- He heeded everything I said with ɔful attention, and attacked every as though it were a personal enemy e to be demolished. And Eudora d with ever constant vigilance to ıy expectations of her. She learned s readily as Luke, but hers was a joyous effort; she revelled in her ; and was happiest when some task · imagination far afield. She had ɔffended in the slightest; never by r act, not even by accident, had she ed the faintest ripple of order.

d promulgated the no-whispering n a Monday morning. Everything :n quiet. I started to let the school · the morning recess. I had not ɔr heard a whisper. Arthur Bott- nd flew up; Arthur Bottler's meddle- ɔice piped out:

lora whispered!"

ɔra turned very pale, her eyes went o her desk, and then sought mine t of scared appeal.

l you?" I asked.

; — I asked Mary for her arith- Mary was her seatmate.

:n I guess you will have to stay in."

:p flush of shame and mortification over her sensitive face; her lips :d — Eudora, who had never been :d in school, was the first victim of w iron-clad rule, while all the uying, laughing, boisterous ones, out whooping and yelling.

ɔra's head slowly sank upon the desk ıer; and her shoulders rose and fell w sob. She had tried so hard to ect; she had wanted to do exactly ith me; just as I had hoped to be before the district — and we had iled.

h smoldered in me all the rest of the ıe raw sort of wrath that comes ou feel yourself one third in the and two thirds the victim of cir- ıces. I surely kept a vigilant eye, he evening's recess I had garnered ı whispers in a little note book, d the names and ordered them to in.

ɡs drifted after that. There were of calm; and again *tempestuous* times when things approached the riot stage. I invented a number of original forms of moral suasion.

One by one I had forsaken the tenets of my teachers' psychology until all were abandoned but one — I clung to that. *Never inflict corporal punishment.* The teacher who can not govern without the rod should resign. That was deeply ground into me. I did not want to resign, and so I invented other punishments instead of the rod.

My first big contact with parenthood occurred the week before Thanksgiving. I had vowed that no matter what happened I would not use physical violence. But I think the school knew me better than I knew myself, or things would have been worse than they were. Slimmy and Chuck and several others had been baiting me, slowly, cautiously, but constantly encroaching a little here and there. Slimmy took the lead, for he was the largest — much larger and older than I.

The boys had been slow about coming in when the bell rang. They tarried a little longer each time.

One day Slimmy stayed out ten minutes.

At the evening recess, I remarked:

"Slimmy may remain in to make up for the time he lost at noon."

Slimmy gave Chuck a wink, and deliberately got up and went out. I saw several violet rays before my eyes, but held in. When I dismissed at four, I stationed myself at the door, and asked Slimmy to keep his seat.

Slimmy kept it. "Now," I said, dropping psychological formulas, "you will apologize in the morning for your disobedience — do it before the whole school, or you will take your books and go home and not come back."

Slimmy took his books. But early next morning his father came back.

He began to talk like a man who is looking for trouble and does not want any excuse for not having it. He laid the law down flat that his boy was coming back to school and was *not* going to apologize. The other boys had stayed out late at recess and never been kept in; and his boy was just as good as any of them — and I couldn't run any "Sandy" over him.

I tried to explain, and at the same time make it clear that Slimmy was not coming back. The interview began to take a rather serious turn. I am glad that I never found out what the result would have been if Melvin Robins, the president of the board, had not arrived just then.

Robins had heard from his children about the "Slimmy" affair, had guessed there would be trouble, and had ridden over. He jumped off his horse and began to talk; the gist of it was that Slimmy would do exactly what the teacher said, or stay out. And moreover Slimmy's father would stay off the school premises. Slimmy's father left, and Slimmy spent the rest of the winter hunting rabbits and telling the boys what he was going to do to me.

Expelling Slimmy checked the stream of disorder a little but did not stop it. Trouble accumulated at compound interest. I was working feverishly trying to help the school, trying until my eyes ached to get the classes ahead, and encourage the backward ones. Yet every day things happened that sent me home in a torment of failure.

I worried over all these things, individually and collectively. Each offered a problem for settlement, each added to the miserable uncertain feeling that something had to be done about it — and that it was not nearly all right with the world. But the worst of it was my ideals had toppled, and the vision was gone.

The unruly spirit had been gaining a little all the time. Chuck, who knew and cared less about books than a rat does about roses, had given me constant trouble. Outwardly conforming to my directions, his impudence and sullenness in the school room, his bullying on the playground, gave me constant trouble. Since Slimmy was expelled, he was the leader. Though there were older boys, he was chunky, very muscular, and weighed a hundred and thirty pounds.

Friday all day I felt a vague uneasiness. I had seen looks between Chuck and some of the other big boys that I did not like. After the evening recess, when I rang the bell, the girls and some small boys came trooping in. The big boys, fifteen of them, did not come. I waited five, ten minutes. Then they came straggling in from the woods. Some of them looked sheepish, some looked as though they were not well pleased with themselves. But Chuck puffed and slammed the books about his desk in a self-gratified way. I did not say anything but looked them over carefully to see that they were all in.

They were all there but Luke, my prize scholar.

I called the first class and, while it was at the board, sauntered back to Jim Coggins's desk.

"Jim," I said in an undertone, "where is Luke Elton?"

Jim squirmed a little uneasily in his seat — "I dunno — went home I reckon."

"Why?" The question went quick and straight.

"Oh, I dunno — I think he said he wasn't feeling very well."

I was distinctly uneasy. I skipped the next three recitations and dismissed at three o'clock. I would interview the boys about being late, Monday morning.

I closed the school house hastily and started off down the ridge road toward Elton's. The farther I went the more uneasy I became, and the faster I walked. I had not gone a mile when I saw Luke ahead of me. He was walking very slowly. I ran forward.

His lip was cut and blood was over his face and clothes; his face was bruised and already his eyes were swollen shut, and there was an ugly mark on his neck at the base of the skull. I took him to the creek and washed his face and then took him home.

I went for a doctor, who said on examination that the boy's weakened system and nervousness were likely to make his hurts serious.

As I went home I turned to the right and stopped at Coggins's. Jim was out in the field shucking corn from the shock. I headed straight toward him and Jim saw something in the way I came that made his feet restless to run.

"Jim," I was in easy reach before I spoke, "what happened to Luke Elton?"

Jim made just one halting evasion and then he told it eagerly.

)h, it was a horrid story. It made my ɔd boil — as it would yours, and I'll ɜ you the boiling by not telling it.

I didn't have nothing to do with it," mpered Jim, "none of us did but ıck."

No," I said, "you great, cowardly te, you infamous gang of brutes! 'ou stood by and saw him do that."

unday evening I went out into the ket, and selected ten young hickory ɔuts of last year's growth, nearly an ı in diameter at the big end, four feet ʒ, smooth and straight.

hen I went to bed and slept better ɪ I had in months.

was at the school house early next ning, and smuggled the gads in without of the pupils seeing. I hid them on floor behind my desk.

/hen school was called there was a ɪt sense of uneasiness, but Chuck was in ɜeat, impudent and self-assured as ever. w him wink at several of the boys.

/ithout any preliminaries I said:

Chuck, come up here."

huck did not budge. Instead, I saw bracing his feet under the desk. I ted about ten seconds and then went r him.

/hen I had landed him on the platform my desk, I laid him face downward took off his coat. He was thoroughly ed by that time. This was a new sort ıoral suasion.

Stand up!" I ordered. He stood.

brought out that bundle of hickory ʒ, and two of them were shredded like ıp strings when I was done.

Now," I said, when I had deposited the ɔ and lacerated, moaning, whimpering ng brute in his seat, "Tom Murphy, ınt you next."

called three others — big boys that d learned were implicated. I used one apiece on them.

'hen it was finished the school was cely breathing. There was not a ıd but the suppressed moans of ck.

Now," I said, with very effective ːtion in my tones, "if ever one of you ar, bulldozing brutes is guilty of any- g like that again — or even stand by and see it done, I'll beat you until you have to be carried home in a wagon. And go home and tell your dads all about it. And also tell them if they don't like it to come here as quick as they can get here and I'll settle with them in a hurry."

That was foolish — but I was mad. It was dangerous. I fully expected it to be the finish of me as well as of my career.

But they didn't come. And the order that I had in that school the rest of the week scared me. It was so still that sometimes I listened to my watch tick to see if I was not deaf.

There was trouble and annoyance at Bean Ridge during the rest of school; but my order was good. I had quite as plentiful complaints of too much strictness as I had had the other way. But I fought it through.

Lots of times I examined myself and felt what a fearful failure I had been. I could scarcely see a thing of importance that I had accomplished. And yet I discovered, afterward, that I had taught a great many things that I had not tried to teach. I found that a teacher teaches most unconsciously; that he is more valuable, or invaluable, than any of his teachings. I discovered that what was in me of ambition, of high ideals, of standards of conduct, somehow impressed itself on the school. I found that my ambition got into the brains of many of the pupils; and of that school, primitive and tempestuous as it was, seven at least are now holding positions of high honor and trust; five are happy in useful professional work — and many others are doing good honest living. After all, it is the teacher who is the door— and through his spirit the pupils are to walk to higher fields of hope and endeavor.

I still felt at the close of school that I was an utter failure, that my hopes were blasted, the vision gone. I would never get another school. I had not had one compliment, not one word of encouragement — nothing but complaint during the whole six months.

But when the school was dismissed, Melvin Robins to my surprise came up and shook hands with me.

"You ain't done near as bad as some beginners," he said, encouragingly.

THE MARCH OF THE CITIES

THE PROGRESS OF SIMPLER MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

THE simplification of municipal government that began twelve years ago with the "Galveston plan" and the "Des Moines plan" of government by commission has found hearty acceptance among the smaller cities of the United States. Two hundred and fifty such cities are now managing their affairs under the commission form of government. Larger communities are adopting the plan as its success is repeatedly demonstrated. Jersey City, with a population of 267,779, accepted the new system at the municipal election last April, and is now one of the largest municipalities under commission government.

A still newer type of management, that is perhaps especially adapted to the needs of smaller communities, is beginning to be copied. This is the "city manager plan," which was first successfully operated in Staunton, Va., beginning five years ago. This experiment was described in the WORLD'S WORK for December, 1911. Probably the ideal man for city manager is a practical engineer, for the problems of municipal efficiency are largely engineering and business problems. The success of the plan in Staunton is credited principally to the selection of an engineer for the task, and most of the cities that have elected to try the method have also chosen an engineer for the job.

Thus, when Hancock, Mich., a year ago, accepted the city manager plan, the mayor chose Mr. William W. Stockly to carry out its purposes. The following account of his administration is condensed from a letter from a correspondent in Michigan:

Mr. William W. Stockly is a shrewd Yankee of mature years and experience; a civil engineer who has run railroads through the rockiest portions of the upper peninsula of Michigan, and a man whose knowledge of municipal engineering, gleaned from many years' service, is more extensive than that of any other local man who could have been chosen for the post. He is honest, insistent upon efficiency, ambitious, and impartial — and he has never dabbled in politics. His salary was fixed at $3,000 — an unheard-of sum for a municipal officer in a city of 9,000 people, but there was comparatively little "knocking."

Mr. Stockly's first act — or, more properly, his first attempt to act — was to enforce the collection of water rentals, which had fallen several thousand dollars in arrears. He saw no reason why patrons of the public should not pay their bills as promptly and as willingly as patrons of private corporations. With a monkey-wrench as his emblem of authority, he set out, after due notice, upon his task of shutting off the water from the premises of those who had refused to pay up. Certain influential men objected, and they began immediately a series of bitter attacks upon the city manager that are still continued. Mr. Stockly went his way, however, performing to the very best of his ability the duties which had been entrusted to him. He established a systematic collection of garbage which had never before been known in Hancock. Theretofore garbage had been permitted to accumulate during the fall and winter, to be hauled away when it got too noisome in the spring. If people wanted to be clean and to avoid breeding germs upon their premises, they were compelled to engage a dray at exorbitant cost to remove their garbage. A contract for the collection of garbage was let to the owner of a number of teams; every resident was compelled to provide a suitable utensil for the storage of the garbage, and Hancock saved in doctors' bills last summer many times the cost of the innovation.

Mr. Stockly placed the ban on surface closets; insisted that foreign residents refrain from making cattlepens and pigsties of their basements; rooted insanitary bakeries out of basements; compelled citizens to make use of the sewers in preference to open ditches; saw that the streets were swept and sprinkled, and that the germ-laden dust should have as little opportunity as possible to circulate.

In the spring, when the winter's mass of snow and ice departed, leaving its usual deposit of filth, he had men out with hose and scrub brushes, scouring the pavements. The alleys

for long had been storage places for bed dèbris from stores and from meat, d grocery houses — were made passable entable.

und that the water department had de a haven for political favorites. He ed the chief engineer, imported an en- om a neighboring village, and dis- hree other men whose chief duty had draw their pay. All the men had "; most of them had supported the ration. Of course, someone went to or, but he gave them little satisfac- Stockly was running things."

tockly did not fill the places of the de- en — he did not need to. He estab- e unit system in the boiler room, and that every pound of coal be forced to its proper amount of steam. The old- ughed at the idea of weighing coal and g steam and making out reports. the other "flub-dubbery." But had annually bought an entire cargo as much as one of the smaller freight uld bring up from down the lakes. ckly proved that there was plenty of last over a season, and Hancock did nd seven or eight thousand dollars for spring. He also invested fifty dollars alves for a "worthless" pump, and the now lifting as much water as it did w, and the principal pump, after being ly overhauled, is now being used only e.

ck had had a smoke ordinance for a of years. It was a dead-letter. The grant violator was the city hall itself. ckly endeavored to enforce the smoke e, until he found the mayor and clerk ected to sign it.

merchants in Hancock used the s as display grounds for their wares. ns, when there was not room on the s, took to the gutter. Mr. Stockly the sidewalk obstructions; moved ases back of their owners' property restored to the people their own.

ck occupies a beautiful site midway ope of a rugged hill that towers seven feet from the level of Portage Lake. up the hill to the portals of the city is reet. Formerly it twisted and turned, and widened, slanted and bulged. freshet came along huge slabs of the k sidewalk which lined it on one side washed over the brink of the precipice ts fifty to a hundred feet below. Mr. condemned a corner of a leading property which caused one of the most abrupt angles. The leading citizen objected and went over to the "antis." Mr. Stockly went ahead with the work. When it is completed, Hancock will have a wide, straight avenue, gradually leading up from the bridge which connects the city with Houghton, and which will be a "gateway" worthy of the name.

Mr. Stockly never was and never can be a politician; a hundred men in Hancock might have been chosen who would have held the job, satisfied the public in general, and not made a single enemy. Stockly, handicapped as he has been by his rough-hewn personality, lost public support at the election on April 1st. But his work has not been a failure from the standpoint of the physical Hancock. It is a better place, a cleaner place, a healthier place. Five playgrounds, among other monuments, will remain as a tribute to the general manager who "failed."

Hickory, a busy little furniture manufacturing town in North Carolina, is the latest city to adopt the Staunton plan. The population of Hickory is about four thousand. A correspondent there writes that

Our new commission charter was enacted as law on the 17th of March and our first primary election will be held on April 21st, to be followed by the regular municipal election on April 28th.

Our new form of government is similar to that of Sumter, S. C., in that the business of the city will be in the hands of a city manager, subject to the supervision of four city councilmen and a mayor, all elected at large. The city manager will be employed by the city council, and must give all his time to the city's business. His term of office will be at the pleasure of the city council. The mayor and city council must meet once a week and will receive only a nominal salary.

Our plan embraces the initiative and referendum and the recall both as to elective offices and legislation; publicity in all public affairs; monthly itemized statements of receipts and expenditures; control of public schools; substitution of school visitors for school directors; abolition of fee system; and automatic collection of taxes.

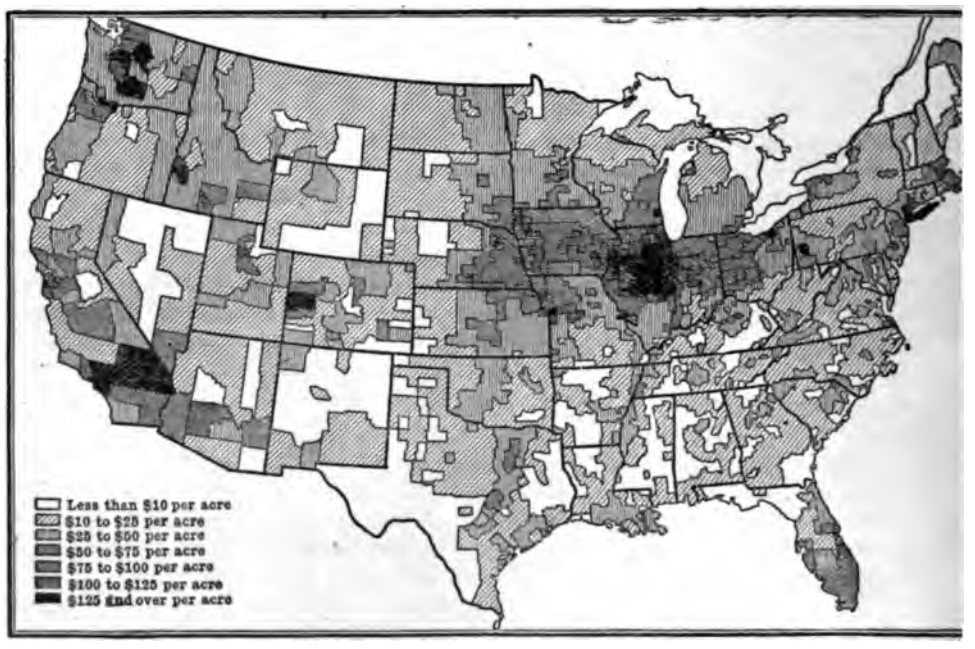
These experiments in simpler and more business-like administration of municipal business are encouragingly successful. The rapid acceptance of them by other cities is a hopeful sign of the new demand for efficiency in government.

FORWARD TO THE LAND

NOT long ago a man came into this office in search of information about land. He wanted to leave the city for the soil. He had spent six months looking for a place to settle. He had looked in many districts, among others in that part of Central Illinois shown in black on the map, and in a part of Alabama shown in white. He had wasted much in railroad fare because he had not decided whether he wanted to go forward to the land or forward to the farm — whether he wanted to engage in speculation, or to acquire and maintain an established business.

The land shown in white on the map sells for less than $10 an acre, and that usually means land and little else; in other words, few schools, roads, telephones, markets, etc. To buy such land, to build it up, and to help build up a community with it will yield great profits in increasing land values if in nothing else. That is constr speculation, and the chief risk o speculation will be that the perso tries it may not be able to carry it th Almost always the land will do its p

The land shown in black on the r $125 land. Except in the irrigated land that sells for $100 an acre is p a developed farm in a region whe markets, schools, roads, etc., or at some of them, are well developed.



WHERE LAND IS HIGH AND WHERE IT IS LOW

SHOWING BY COUNTIES THE AVERAGE PRICE PER ACRE OF LAND CLASSED AS FARMING LAND

risk and effort on such a farm ar than on the other kind. The specu return is more limited, also. The kinds of investments call for dif types of men. Different roads lea ward to the land and forward to the One who wishes to go to the country s look well and see which road he wis take, particularly since there is a road which leads to the "estates" men spend their city-made money.

FORWARD TO THE LAND

OREGON ORGANIZING COUNTRY CHILDREN

BY

MUSA GEER

SS than ten years ago, State Superintendent Alderman, in a ittle Yamhill County school in , saw the children of the school up a collection to buy popcorn. same time, he saw a plot of vacant near the school house, and it d to him that they might better e popcorn than buy it.

that idea 60,000 children have better citizens. They have raised ly popcorn, but chickens, pigs, potatoes, asters, roses, almost hing that grows.

State Bankers' Association, when ard of the idea, called it "earth on" and lent their aid to it. Two ter, Mr. O. M. Plummer, secretary easurer of the Portland Union Yards, became convinced of the f the children's work and, through anization, helped to publish fifty d copies of a booklet that gave l and scientific information on to Raise Prize-Winning Pigs." same time, the Commercial Club land put out a similar publication ys and Girls on the Egg Problem." hese booklets were distributed to ils in all parts of the state.

rintendent Alderman wrote the s a letter in which he said:

> e children if they know how to grow , pumpkins, corn, etc. Ask how many like watermelons or muskmelons. Ask they know how to feed chickens; if ow that if they buy three settings of m one neighbor and three hens from and in March put the two together, ll probably raise some prize winners fair. The children of Oregon can he egg production in three years.

arvelous interest was awakened oys and girls of Oregon. Gardens id out at home and at school. work brought good results and the hearty support of the parents. Many prejudices were broken down and, without realizing it, the fathers learned from the boys much that was efficient.

In the meanwhile the Oregon Agricultural College, the coöperating influence between the Oregon farmers and the scientists, established the "extension farm movement." This not only aids the parents, but helps the children. Provision was made by the college for a field worker to visit farming centres all over the state. Information was given out telling about ways to increase acreage yield, rotation of crops, better market facilities, more economical and better cooking.

The schools soon became the social centres, where a community spirit grew. This year lantern slides and phonographic records of the world's good music will instruct and entertain these gatherings.

The Oregon State Fair, in 1912, spent $3,500 in prizes for school industrial work. The railroads and electric lines gave free transportation to all displays that were made by the children. One little girl, who lived off the railroad, wheeled her prize-winning chickens two miles in a baby buggy to the fair. Another little girl, seven years old, put thirty dollars in the bank after the fair was over—her net profits from a fifteen-dollar prize on a trained colt, a five-dollar prize for the biggest watermelon, and other cash prizes for vegetable displays. The best cake was baked by a twelve-year-old boy.

The Oregon legislature of 1913 passed a measure providing an appropriation to defray the expenses and salaries of two industrial field workers, who are to visit every county in the state, make a study of representative schools in every county, and file reports of existing conditions with the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. One result of the hog-raising contest in 1912 was that enough pigs were raised by the boys and girls to supply the Portland Union Stock Yards for three months without any outside help.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ABOUT FARM LANDS

86.— *Q.* We think of starting a meat market and grocery store in Brooklet, Bulloch County, Georgia, and of raising lots of hogs as well. What do you think of the place and the plan?

A. The census of 1910 gives the population of Brooklet as 361, which we consider scarcely a large field for the commercial side of your plan. The hog-raising phase ought to be well adapted to conditions in the county, in connection with general farming. The percentage of improved land on farms is steadily increasing, and the average value of land has risen from $4.48 to nearly $22 an acre in ten years. We advise a careful study of the United States Soil Survey of Bulloch County, 1910, as your next step.

87.— *Q.* I want to take up a Government homestead, but hardly know which state to choose. How would you compare Colorado and Minnesota for fruit raising or general farming on such lands?

A. Outside of the Government irrigation projects there is to-day comparatively little homestead land that is really valuable for farming, especially for fruit raising. Such opportunities as there are, are likely to be better in Colorado for the specialized types of agriculture, and in Minnesota for general farming and dairying. We suspect that the traveling expenses involved in locating a satisfactory homestead would almost equal the total cost of buying better land that could be found with less search.

88.— *Q.* May I inquire about agricultural conditions in Sherman and Decatur counties, Kansas? Is there sufficient rainfall, or a supply of water for irrigation; and what crops are grown?

A. Conditions in these counties are thoroughly discussed in the Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Western Kansas, 1910, which you can obtain free from the United States Department of Agriculture. For more detailed climatic data ask the Weather Bureau at Washington for Section 38 of the Summary of Climatological Data. The chief crops and their acreages in Sherman County, according to the 1910 census, were: corn, 171,034 acres; wheat, 54,074; alfalfa, 41,624; wild grasses, 21,553; coarse forage, 8,776; and oats, 7,388; and in Decatur County, corn, 109,002 acres; wheat, 80,771; coarse forage, 14,705; alfalfa, 8,658; wild grass, 6,565; and barley, 5,717.

89.— *Q.* A friend and myself, both familiar with practical and scientific agricultural methods, think of starting a farm on the order of the Taft Ranch described in the January WORLD'S WORK, though, of course, much smaller. We wish to raise cattle, hogs, horses, poultry, fruit, and vegetables. Our capital is $13,000. Which of the following states do you consider best suited to our purpose: Arkansas, Texas, California, or Oregon?

A. Either the Ozark country of Arkansas and Missouri or eastern Texas ought to supply the necessary items of cheap land, mild climate, sufficient rainfall, and sufficient available acreage to permit future expansion. Soil and climate are excellent in California and western Oregon, but prices are likely to be prohibitive. In our opinion, the success of the Taft Ranch depends as much upon the magnitude of its operations as upon any other element. As $13,000 is probably a small fraction of the investment it represents, you are, in this respect at least, somewhat handicapped. However, many of the details of management on the Taft place should prove successful on other farms whether large or small.

90.— *Q.* Please advise what a young married man, in danger of losing a $2,000 position through a change in his business, should do with $4,500 as an investment. I have a liking for farming, but do you think two people, willing to work hard, could get a living from a small farm for a year or two, looking toward success later?

A. We believe that two people endowed with health, a real love for the country, and, if possible, some farm knowledge, could make a success of farming with $4,500 in several parts of the country, but it is for you to choose whether your investment shall be in this direction or along financial lines. We frankly believe that a good farm will give greater returns for the amount invested than the strongest 4 per cent. or 5 per cent. bonds, but, of course, the paying ability of the farm depends on the investor himself, whereas the return from stocks and bonds does not. You must expect, however, to take at least two years, and probably four or five, to get really established.

The World's Work

ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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REPRESENTATIVE IN CONGRESS FROM THE FOURTH DISTRICT OF TENNESSEE, WHO IS THE AUTHOR OF THE INCOME TAX SECTION OF THE TARIFF BILL WHICH IS THE DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION'S MEASURE TO PUT INTO EFFECT THE 16TH AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION

THE
WORLD'S WORK

JULY, 1913

VOLUME XXVI NUMBER 3

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

IT IS a good time to have confidence not only in the essential prosperity of the country but in one another. It is unfortunately a common thing to hear people in business speak in condemnation of all men in politics, and similarly unfortunate that men in political life hold an attitude of suspicion toward men of business. The trouble arises mainly in the difference in their viewpoints. It is strikingly exemplified at times by the experiences of business men who go into politics, and vice versa. They are confronted with new sets of facts and conditions which very often make a great difference in the angle of their vision. There are, of course, business men with no outlook beyond their pocketbooks, but they are probably fewer than at any other time in the history of the country. There are men in politics with narrow views and unworthy purposes, but even a casual investigation will convince any one that our politics is cleaner than ever before. There are exceptions in both groups, wicked men in both business and politics, but the humanity underlying both classes is much the same, particularly in the ability clearly to see the shortcomings of the other. Each group is afraid that the other will "play politics" and do them an injury.

A great deal of money and, what is more important, a great many reputations could be saved if the men of business and the men of politics could come to understand each other with intelligence and charity. In both pursuits there are many indications that American morals are improving and improving rapidly. The attitude of employers toward labor is very different from what it was twenty-five or even fifteen years ago. There is less sharp practice than there used to be. And the attitude of business toward the public has changed for the better. In politics, the last few years have seen vigorous fights against many forms of "honest graft" that long existed unmolested. Campaign contributions with strings to them are done with, and we have even come to a day when a President publicly denounces the profession of lobbyist which has flourished in Washington for generations. With conditions so much improved and the illegitimate relations between business and politics less and less active, it is surely time to begin to build up a feeling of mutual confidence and respect between the men in these pursuits.

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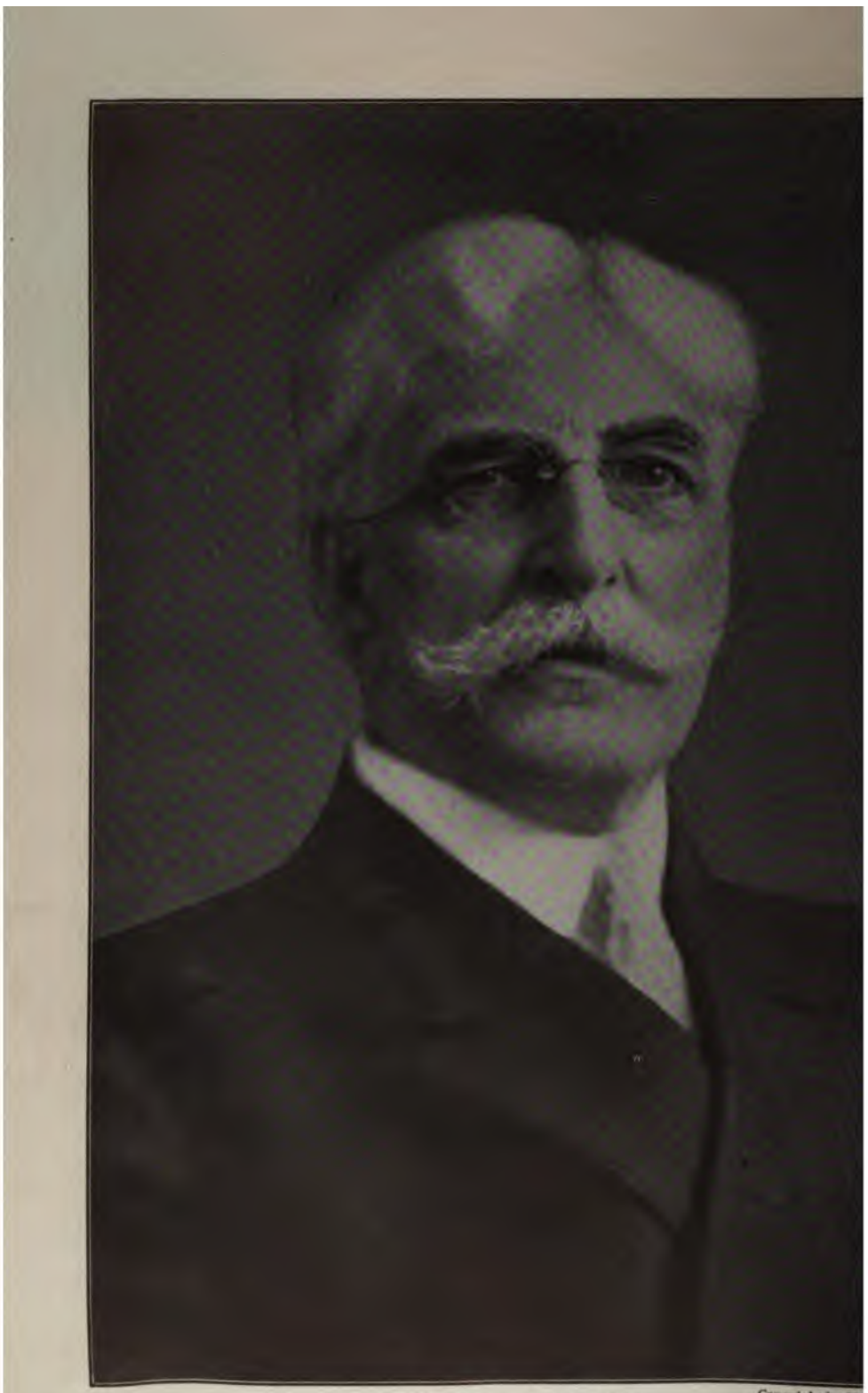

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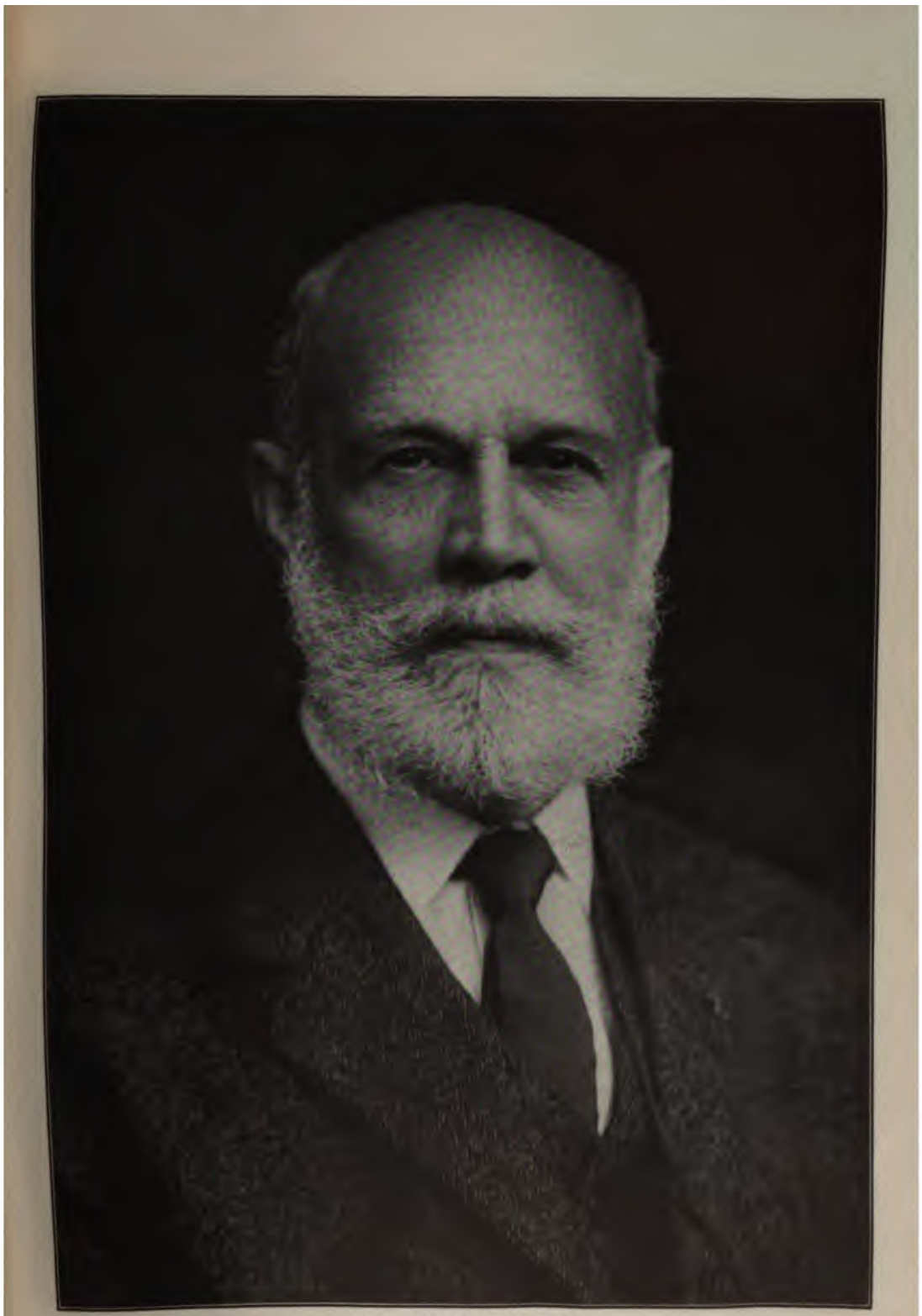
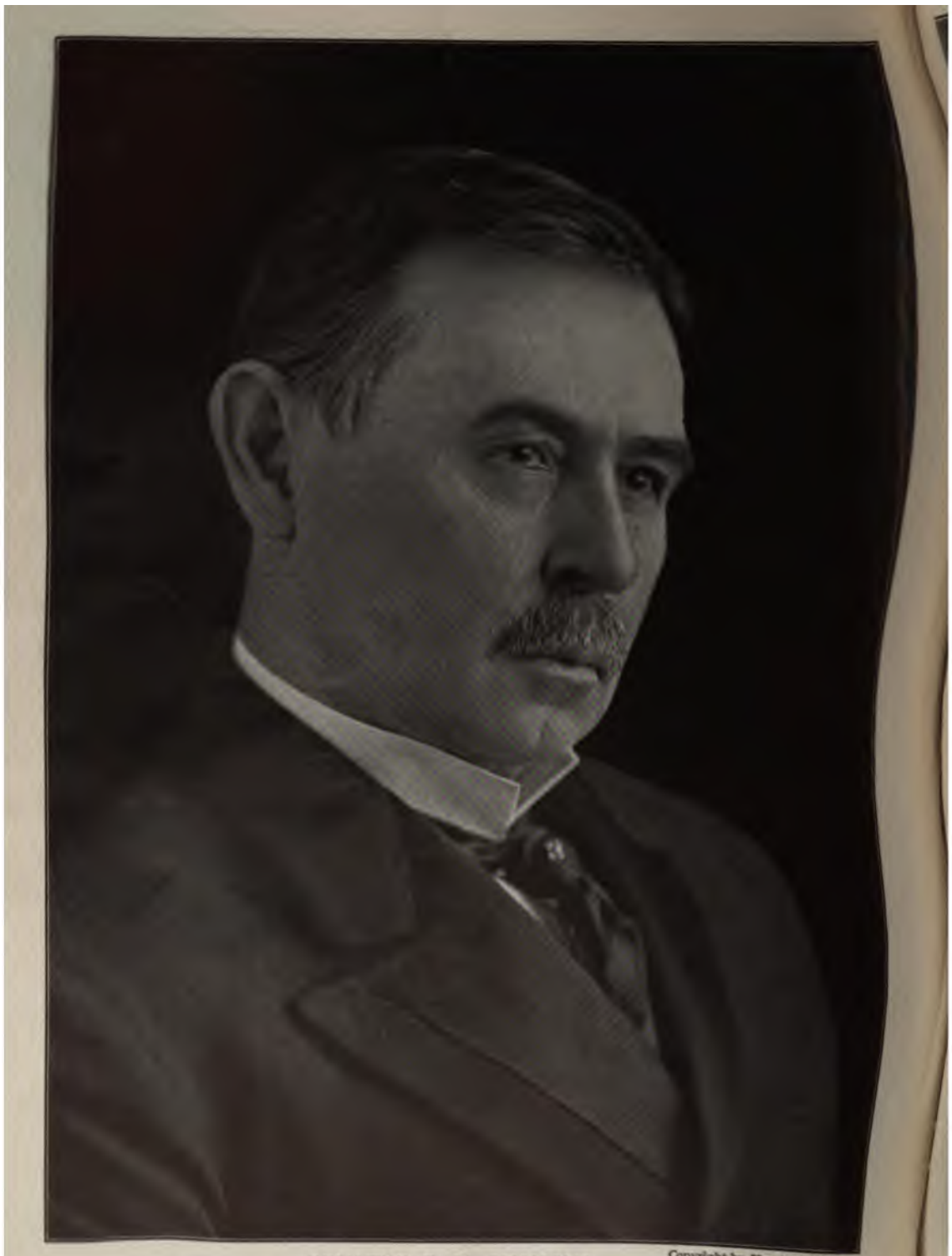
MR. J. F. A. STRONG

THE NEWLY APPOINTED TERRITORIAL GOVERNOR OF ALASKA, WHO BRINGS A LON
ENCE AS A NEWSPAPER EDITOR AND AS A PIONEER SETTLER TO THE SERVICE OF THI
MENT IN THE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEMS OF BETTER RAILROAD COMMUNICATIO
THE DEVELOPMENT OF PHYSICAL RESOURCES IN THAT RICH MINERAL AND AGRICULTUR



COL. GEORGE POPE

WHO WAS RECENTLY ELECTED PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS AT THE ANNUAL CONVENTION AT DETROIT, MICH.



SENATOR F. M. SIMMONS

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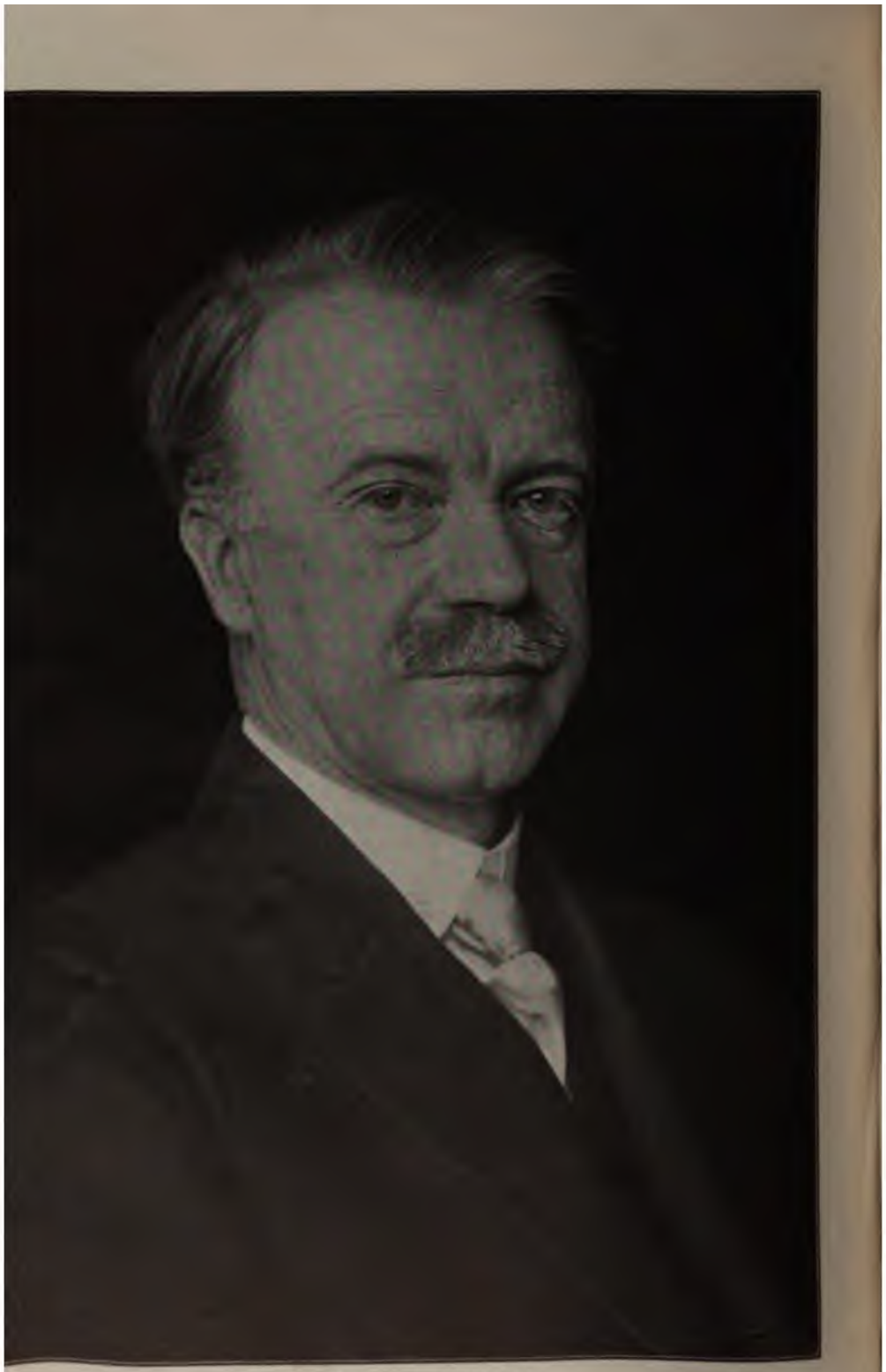
OF NORTH CAROLINA, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON FINANCE, WHO IS THE RESPONSIBLE REPRESENTATIVE OF THE DEMOCRATIC MAJORITY IN THE TASK OF PASSING THE NEW TARIFF LAW THROUGH THE SENATE

Photographed especially for the WORLD'S WORK by Brown Bros., New York

MR. NORMAN HAPGOOD

FORMERLY EDITOR OF "COLLIER'S WEEKLY," WHO RECENTLY ACQUIRED CONTROL OF "HARPER'S WEEKLY," WHICH WILL HEREAFTER APPEAR UNDER HIS EDITORIAL DIRECTION AS AN INDEPENDENT JOURNAL DEVOTED ESPECIALLY TO PROGRESSIVE IDEALS IN GOVERNMENT

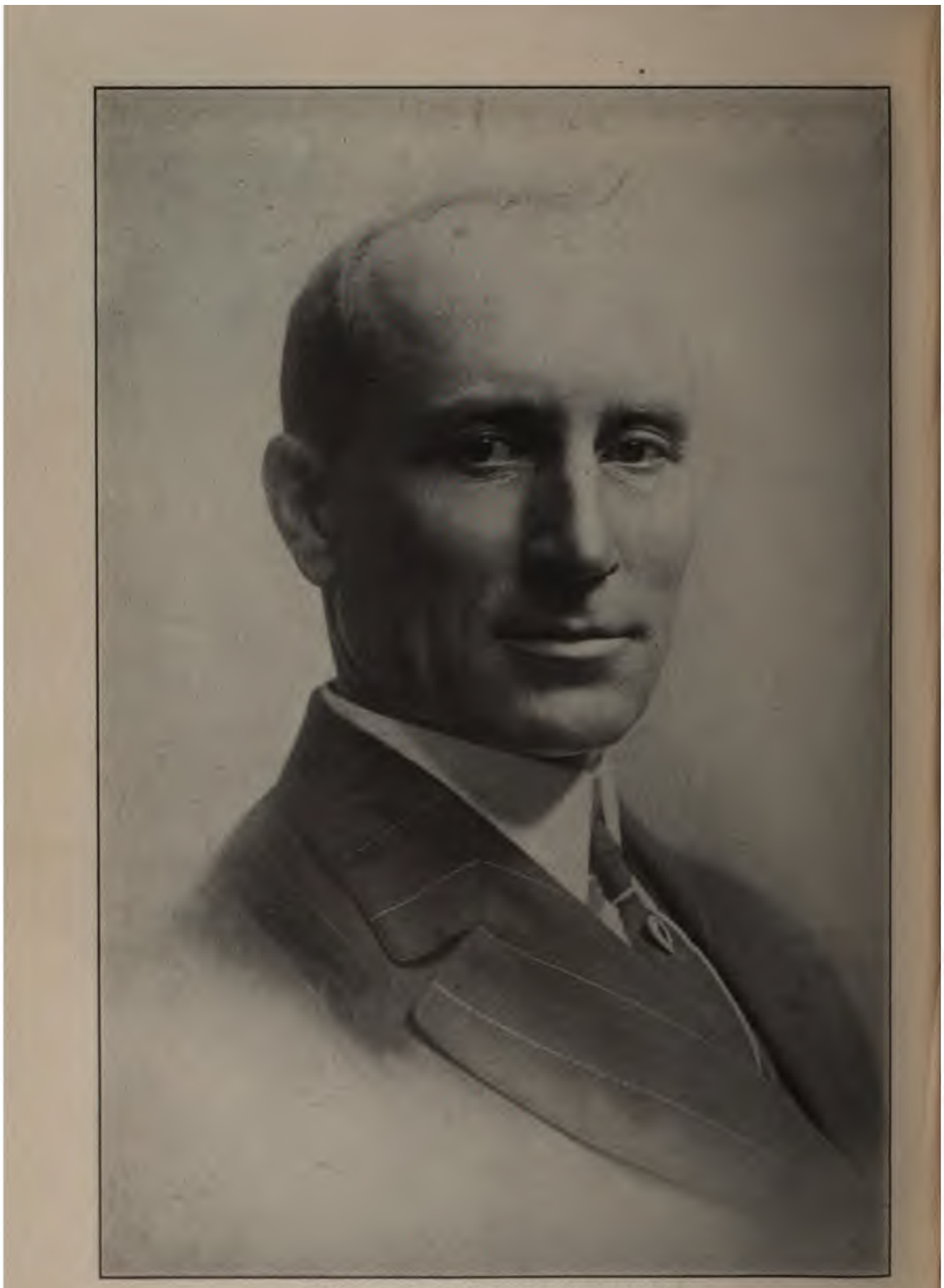


DR. LUTHER H. GULICK

WHOSE WORK AS STUDENT, TEACHER, AND INVENTOR OF GAMES, AND AS PRESIDENT AND OF THE ORGANIZERS OF THE "CAMP FIRE GIRLS" MOVEMENT HAS LARGELY SHAPED THE *ERN IDEALS* OF ORGANIZED PLAY AS A VITAL FORCE IN THE EDUCATION AND IN THE *CAL DEVELOPMENT* OF CHILDREN

MR. EDWIN HATFIELD ANDERSON

THE NEW LIBRARIAN OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY OF NEW YORK CITY, WHICH CIRCULATES EIGHT MILLION BOOKS A YEAR IN MANY LANGUAGES AND WHICH SERVES A READING PUBLIC OF MORE THAN A MILLION PEOPLE THROUGH ITS MAIN BUILDING AND ITS FORTY-ONE BRANCHES



PIONEERS OF SIMPLER GOVERNMENT

I. GOVERNOR GEORGE H. HODGES, OF KANSAS, WHO RECENTLY SUGGESTED THAT THE TWO HOUSES OF THE LEGISLATURE BE CONSOLIDATED TO MAKE STATE LEGISLATION MORE *RESPONSIVE TO THE* WILL OF THE PEOPLE

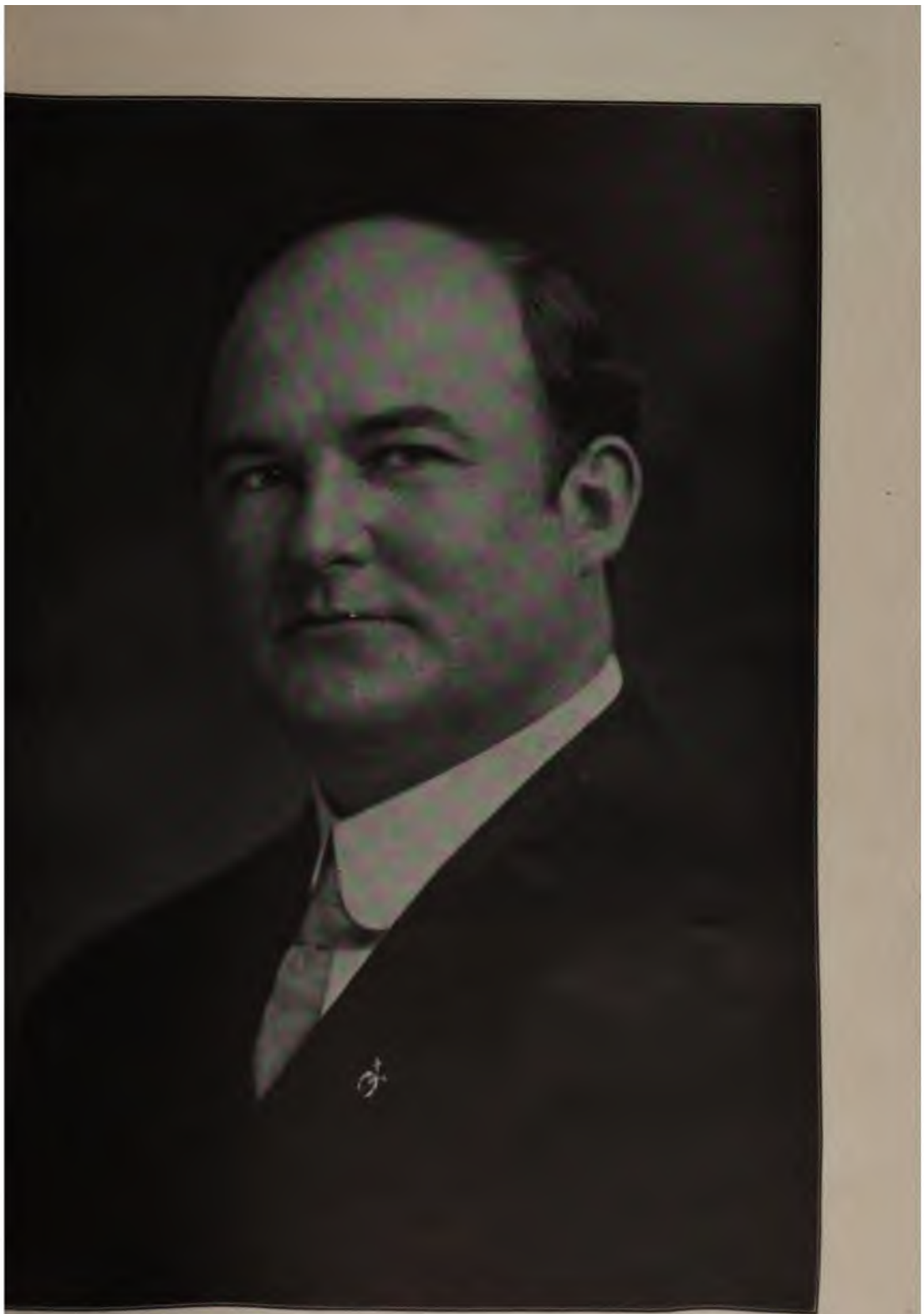
Photographed by Matzene, Chicago

PIONEERS OF SIMPLER GOVERNMENT

II. GOVERNOR HIRAM W. JOHNSON, OF CALIFORNIA, WHO, IN HIS FIRST MESSAGE TO THE LEGISLATURE, RECOMMENDED THE PASSAGE OF THE NEW LAW UNDER WHICH LOS ANGELES COUNTY RECENTLY ADOPTED A CHARTER THAT APPLIES THE PRINCIPLES OF GOVERNMENT BY COMMISSION TO THE COUNTY UNIT

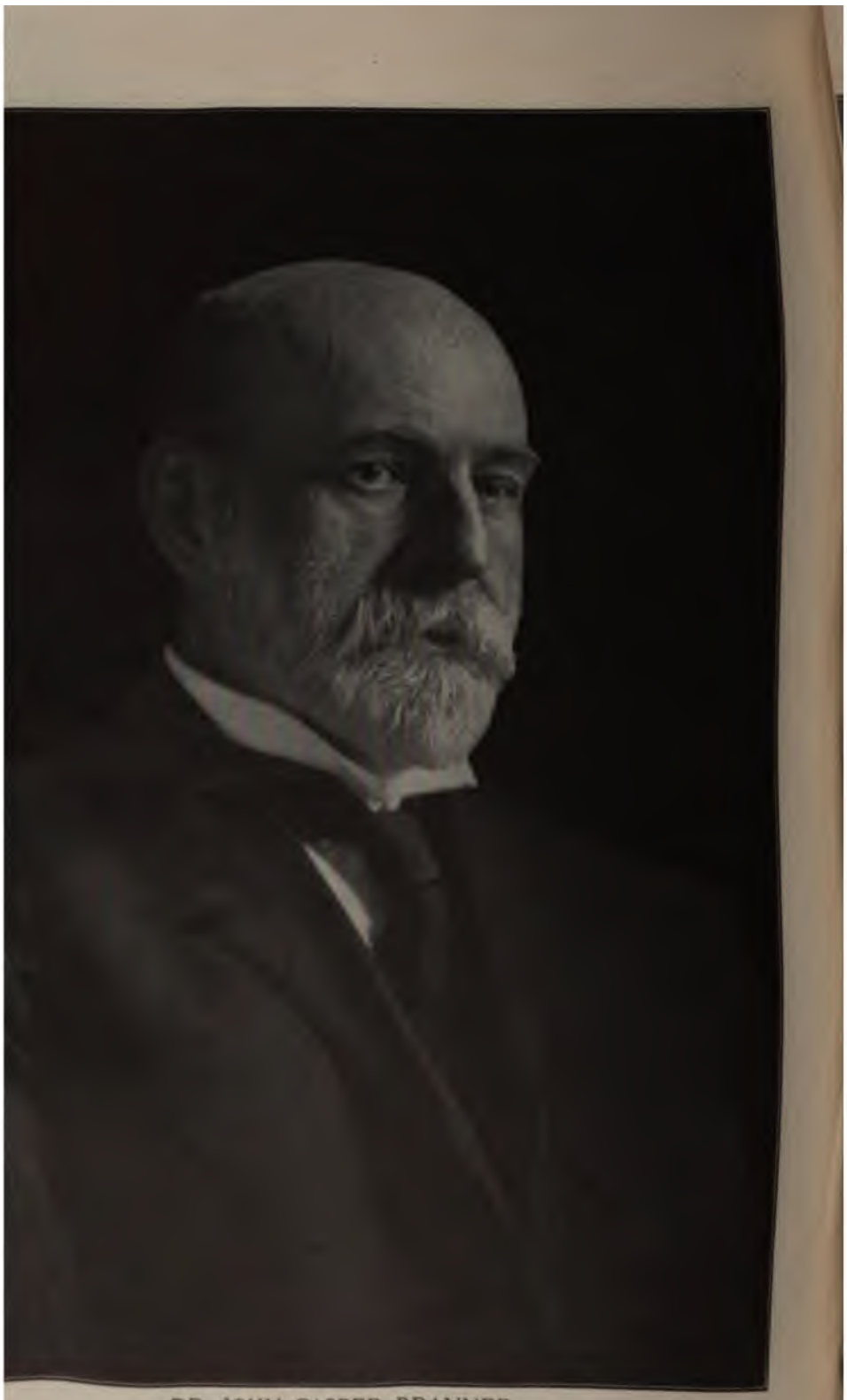
PIONEERS OF SIMPLER GOVERNMENT

III. MR. GEORGE R. WOOTTEN, CITY MANAGER OF HICKORY, N. C., WHICH IS ONE OF SEVERAL SMALL CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES THAT HAVE SUCCESSFULLY MODIFIED THE COMMISSION PLAN OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT TO PLACE THE EXECUTIVE FUNCTIONS OF LOCAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE HANDS OF ONE MAN



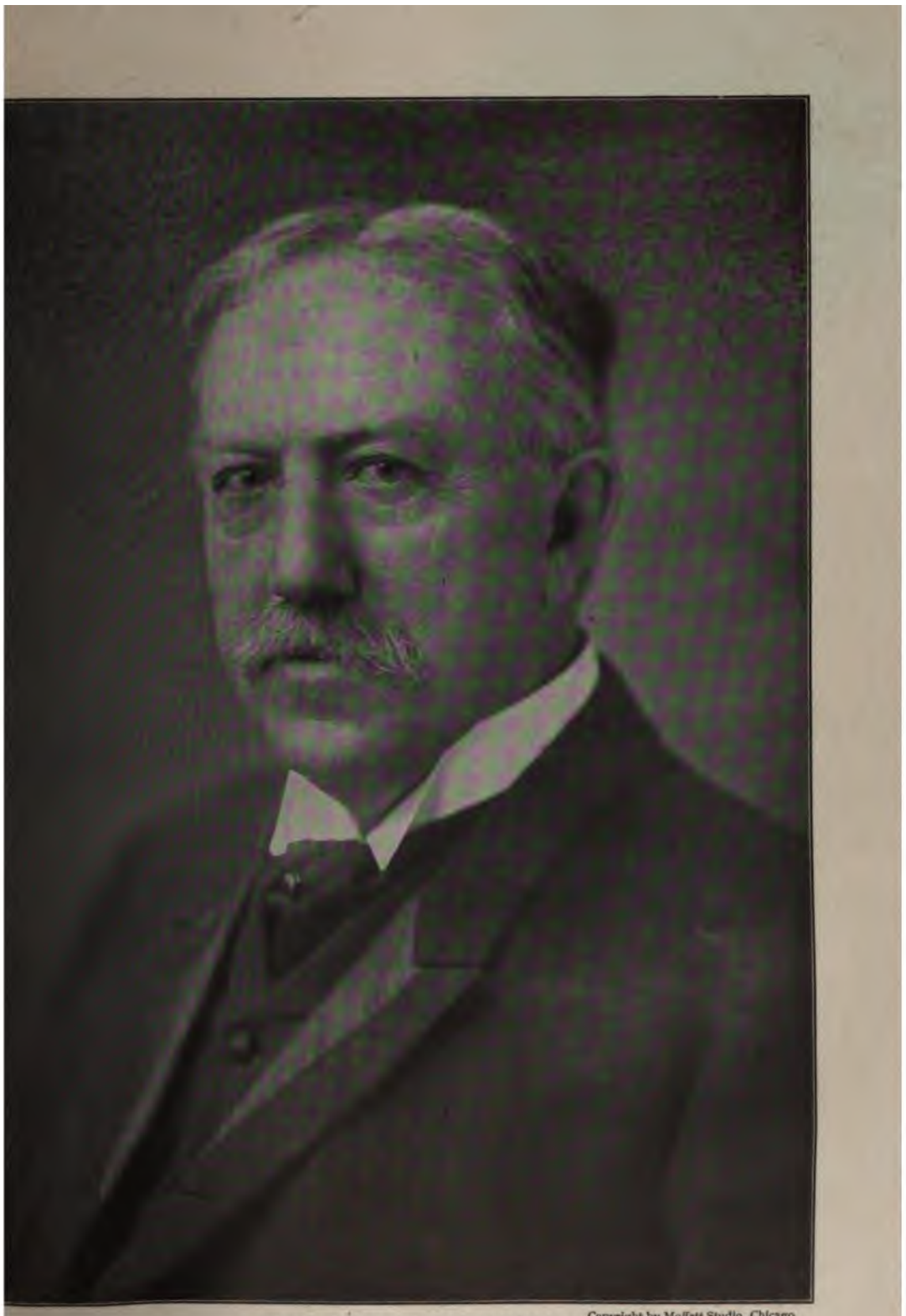
MR. CLARENCE J. OWENS

MANAGING DIRECTOR OF THE SOUTHERN COMMERCIAL CONGRESS AND MEMBER OF THE EDERAL COMMISSION FOR THE STUDY OF THE APPLICATION OF THE COÖPERATIVE SYSTEM TO GRICULTURAL PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION, AND FINANCE IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, WHO AS BEEN LARGELY *INSTRUMENTAL IN* CALLING NATIONAL ATTENTION TO THE NEED FOR A ETTER *ORGANIZATION OF RURAL BANKING* FACILITIES IN THE UNITED STATES



DR. JOHN CASPER BRANNER

EW PRESIDENT OF LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY, WHO WAS RECENTLY
SUCCEED DR. JORDAN AFTER TWENTY-ONE YEARS' SERVICE IN THE UNIVERSITY AS
OF GEOLOGY, DURING FOURTEEN YEARS OF WHICH HE HAS BEEN VICE-PRESIDENT



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DR. DAVID STARR JORDAN

PRESIDENT OF LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY FROM ITS FOUNDATION IN 1891 TO MAY 19, 1913, WHO CREATED IN THOSE TWENTY-TWO YEARS AN INSTITUTION OF LEARNING OF WORLDWIDE REPUTATION, AND WHO HAS RETIRED, AS CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY, TO DEVOTE HIS LIFE TO LITERARY PRODUCTION AND TO THE CAUSE OF INTERNATIONAL PEACE

THE GROWTH OF AMERICAN CITIES

UPPER PICTURE; WICHITA, KANS., AS IT WAS IN 1908. LOWER PICTURE, THE SAME VIEW TO-DAY. THE POPULATION OF WICHITA INCREASED FROM 24,671 IN 1900 TO 52,450 IN 1910, A GROWTH OF 113 PER CENT. IN TEN YEARS

LOBBYISTS

HE Senate Committee that is investigating the activities of lobbyists is not likely to find evidence of the cruder forms of ce on legislation. According to r Bristow, of Kansas, there has been spicuous activity of lobbyists than s of former tariff legislation. Cer- previous Congresses, when engaged ning tariff legislation, have been d with lobbies as insidious if not ndustrious than the lobby that the nt denounced. At least, this tariff s written without the aid of legis- agents of particular manufacturing ts either in or out of Congress. This is not so extraordinary a spectacle the President in his denunciation Lobbies are so common that their al iniquity has to some extent been ght of. As he said:

> of serious interest to the country that ple at large should have no lobby and less in these matters, while great bodies e men seek to create an artificial opinion overcome the interests of the public ir private profit. It is thoroughly he while of the people of this country e knowledge of this matter. Only pinion can check and destroy it.

ufacturers have the right to lay ts of their business before Congress t is contemplating legislation that them; but these facts should be ll facts, and once they are in the f Congress it is the duty of Congress te the decision, and any one who ors to bring fear or favor to bear ence that decision is transgressing rs of public morality.

proper, of course, for constituents l their views to their Congressmen ending legislation. But when the s of a company order or coerce its en to send letters of protest to their ssmen, those officials show a funda- ignorance of popular government or gard for its ideals.

as once thought that campaigns not be carried on without large te contributions. It has been trated that it is *possible*. Perhaps it can be demonstrated just as well that the men who are elected to govern the country, with all their faults, can do it better without the aid of any self-appointed advisers whose point of view is more personal than national.

Before the President issued his statement Senator Kenyon had introduced a bill requiring all persons who wished to support or oppose any pending legislation to register their names and a statement of their interest before they should be allowed to begin any activities. It also provided that no former members of Congress could accept such employment.

Such a measure would put most of the manufacturers and their attorneys upon a frank and open footing, and it should render more difficult the life of the professional political hanger-on who sells his knowledge of Washington and a supposed "influence" to any cause that is gullible enough to hire him.

Whether or not any legislation against lobbyists, such as already exists in several states, come from the President's statement and from the Senatorial inquiry, at least the public attention has been focussed on this ancient and evil practice. And under these conditions illegitimate influence or pressure is less potent than in times of public indifference.

TO RESTRICT IMMIGRATION

SIR GEORGE H. REID, High Commissioner for Australia, at a dinner in New York recently remarked that he thanked God that his country was too far away for the oppressed to get there. It was his good-natured rejoinder to the common boast that America is the home of the oppressed, but underneath it evidently was satisfaction that in working out the problems of present-day industrialism and government Australia would at least be able to go at the problems as a homogeneous whole.

It is certainly open to question whether the stimulated immigration of the Slav, Polack, Sicilian, and Neapolitan peoples that come to our shores is not infinitely complicating our problems.

It is true that they do much of the

manual work of the country. They dig sewers and build railroads; they are in the mines and in the steel works. Greeks and other southern Europeans are in the northern cotton and woolen mills. In Lawrence and Paterson, the Industrial Workers of the World made their chief appeal to these alien workers. In New York the Russian Jews, like the Italians, live in "quarters."

All these peoples have their good qualities. If the right tests are chosen it can be proved that any one of these races produces better citizens than the native stock or than immigrants of any other race; and if other tests are used, other results may be obtained.

But two facts stand out plainly: These people have not been particularly successful in building up anything approximating American government, or American habits, at home. Whether their ways or ours are better is not the point. The ways are different. The second fact is that, though we have proved that Scotch, English, Irish, German, and Scandinavian immigrants assimilate readily and share the ideals and aspirations of the country, we are not certain what the results of the influx of southern Europeans will be.

Under these circumstances it might be wise to curtail, at least, the human stream that is now flowing to this country.

Senator Dillingham has introduced a bill in Congress to accomplish this purpose. It is prompted by the same forebodings which prompted his former bill (proposed by Congressman Burnett in the House) which passed both Houses of the previous Congress and was vetoed by President Taft because it contained an illiteracy test to which he objected. The new bill does not contain this test. Its main provision is that immigration from any country for any one year shall be limited to 10 per cent. of the natives of that country already domiciled in the United States. At present the English, Irish, German, and Scandinavian peoples do not come to this country in sufficient numbers to be affected by such a law. *But it would restrict the numbers of the people from the south of Europe.* It would limit the immigrants from Austria-Hungary to about 167,000 a year instead of about 220,000, the average of the last ten years. It would reduce the Italian newcomers by about 75,000 a year. The number of Greek arrivals would be cut in half.

The bill would allow 173,500 Russians to enter the United States every year. The average annual immigration — mostly Jews — from Russia, however, during the last ten years has been about 172,500.

The usual arguments against such restrictive measures as Senator Dillingham's are not very convincing. The fact that these peoples are oppressed or dissatisfied in the lands of their birth is not proof that their migration will be a successful experiment for the country to which they immigrate.

That they are in demand in certain large industries, chiefly because they are relatively cheap laborers, is not proof of their economic benefit to the country as a whole. The importation of Negroes from Africa had the support of this same argument.

The fact that the population of the United States is all the result of past immigration is not conclusive evidence that all further immigration is desirable. Because one kind of people succeeds in an undeveloped land is no reason why another kind of people should necessarily succeed in a partially developed country, especially when this partial development is the work of men of different aims, ideals, and institutions from those of the immigrants that Senator Dillingham wishes to limit somewhat.

His bill will not be acted upon at the special session of Congress, but it, or some similar provision of Democratic authorship, is likely to come up in the regular session next winter.

Underlying it is the philosophy that it is perhaps wiser to build up the country a little more slowly if by so doing we can minimize somewhat our chances of building badly. It is better to let some of our natural resources wait a while for exploitation than to bring in people to help the development of our material things who will themselves not develop successfully on the "American plan."

SELLING OUR GOODS ABROAD

DURING the last year there has been an increase of about $15,000,000 a month in the value of the manufactured articles exported from the United States. That is the most significant detail of a record export year. In the ten months from July 1, 1912, to April 1, 1913, we sent more goods abroad than ever before in a whole year. We seem to have made a real beginning in a campaign of trade extension that ten years ago was heralded but which did not materialize in any large degree.

But the present growth of our export trade is a particularly happy phenomenon at this time, for it seems to show that, even if our foreign rivals can soon compete with us in the newly opened markets here, we are more and more able to push our goods successfully abroad.

In manufactured foodstuffs we have exported somewhat less than last year. We have shipped more crude foodstuffs and food animals than last year, but not nearly so much as in other years. Our exports of cattle, for example, have practically ceased, and most of the American beef sold in England is from the Argentine.

Crude materials to be used in manufacturing — such things as cotton, lumber, etc. — made up less of our foreign business than in 1912. The great gain came in our exports of goods manufactured, wholly or in part, in the very kind of business in which the price of labor and the "cost of production" count most and in which the United States was supposed to be least able to compete. In these products we did more business than ever before. The comparative record between the corresponding ten months this year and last is as follows:

	1912	1913	GAIN
Partly manufactured goods	$278,403,749	$340,478,584	$62,074,835
Finished goods	544,863,603	640,996,512	96,132,909

Our automobile exports, as one item of the completely manufactured products, are particularly interesting. During ten months $20,000,000 worth of automobiles were sent abroad, a gain of more than 50 per cent. over the same period for 1912. When all the *figures for the year* are in it is expected that at least 30,000 American cars will have gone abroad. That is nearly a tenth of all the cars built here.

With an improving consular service and with the restrictions of a high tariff largely removed, this new spirit of trade conquest in the wide markets of the world should continue uninterruptedly until as a nation we have lost the provincial ignorance that has so hampered us in our dealings with foreign peoples. And the opening of the Panama Canal, too, ought to have a stimulating effect on our trade.

In spite of our handicaps, of our ignorance of foreign markets and our carelessness of their requirements, of our lack of a merchant marine and of American banks in foreign ports—in spite of all these things, it seems that a new era in American manufacturing has set in, a period of export to the markets of the world.

FOR CORDIALITY AS WELL AS PEACE

THE delegates to the international conference to formulate plans for the celebration of a century of unbroken peace between all English-speaking peoples proposed that arches be erected where the international highways from Quebec and Vancouver cross the American border, that a tunnel should be built between Detroit and Windsor, a bridge from Belle Isle to the mainland, and that various other arches and monuments be erected.

These will all be fitting testimony of a good record in the past and an inspiration for the future.

There is something beyond this, however, that could be done, in this country at least, to insure not only peace — for happily we may take that for granted — but a better understanding. Our school histories make much of the stories of the English officer who wanted Andrew Jackson to black his boots, of the supercilious stupidity of Braddock, of the arrogance of British officers at Lexington and Concord. Most Americans do not go to England. Many of them do not know any Englishmen. A good many carry a prejudice gained in childhood from these

stories all through life. There are many Americans who now harbor feelings against "the red coats" less friendly than Washington held toward the English even after he had been fighting them for seven years. It is time for a saner interpretation of history, and especially of the part that the United States has played in relation to other countries, to succeed this old-fashioned, prejudiced version, even if it lose to our school histories some picturesque stories. A removal of these ancient sources of prejudice would give the arches and monuments a more fertile field over which to shed their inspiration for continued peace, to which might well be added a greater cordiality and understanding than has existed in the past.

MR. BRYAN'S PEACE PLANS

THE Secretary of State and the new British Ambassador, Sir Cecil Arthur Spring-Rice, have signed a convention that renews for five years the arbitration treaty between the United States and Great Britain. With France, Italy, and Spain the treaties have already been renewed.

Moreover, Mr. Bryan's proposals for international investigations and conferences of a certain duration before any war can be declared have met a friendly response from England, France, Russia, Italy, Sweden, Norway, Brazil, and Peru. The Secretary's plan has underlying it the same idea that Canada has put into practice in labor troubles. When a dispute arises between employers and employed, both are required to make public all the facts in the case. This gives time for angry feelings to subside, and for the contending parties to decide with sober judgment whether the issue is worth fighting for, and if possible to arrange a basis of settlement. In the meanwhile, in the labor disputes the public will have decided what it thinks about the merits of the case. This is likely to lead to some kind of compromise, because neither laborers nor employers like to enter a contest with the disadvantage of *public disapproval.* This public influence *has been very potent* in the labor situation.

To bring this principle to bear upon the maintenance of peace between the nations is a rather different matter. The only public there is to judge between two nations which are in danger of war consists of the other nations, and there would be great difficulty in getting any pressure from them which would not be entirely prejudiced by such combinations as the Triple Alliance or the Triple Entente.

The other phases of the plan, however, ought to have a strong influence for peace. If a nation has to file a bill of particulars against its neighbor before it goes to war and then to discuss the merits of its claims for a month or more while public clamor has a chance to calm down, out of such a situation it ought to be easier to find a basis for peace than a real excuse for war.

Every plan which makes the declaration of hostilities more difficult is a step in the right direction, but all these arbitration treaties and peace proposals refer chiefly to the relations between governments of responsible nations with well established institutions and great property values. There are unsettled spots scattered all around the world whose inhabitants could not be even reasonably sure that such peaceful pledges would be kept if they were made. In Mexico, in Thibet, in the Near East, the seeds of war may at any time fall on fertile ground.

In spite of the grip which the propaganda of peace has upon the popular imagination in this country and in Europe, universal peace is still a long way off, and for many years the great nations will need soldiers and sailors as guarantors against the very emergency which they are trained to meet.

But even if universal peace is not immediately attainable, the United States may add to its prestige and do a service to humanity by using its active influence toward that high ideal.

WHO IS BOTTLING UP ALASKA?

THE natural resources of Alaska are bottled up. The territory, far from living up to the wonderful future so alluringly depicted for it a few years ago, has not even attained a reasonable growth.

/hat can you expect from the policy nservation?" is an implied explana- of the trouble that is voiced by many ies of the conservation doctrines. inference is that conservation means /ation, prohibition; that it is a kind eep off the grass" sign applied to all al resources.

is is not true, nor can the blame for ling up" Alaska be fairly laid upon rvation. The laws that govern the ory — which were mostly enacted e the policy of conservation existed enforced, effectually prevent the r development of the territory. conservationists believe that until laws are repealed and better ones ituted they should be observed, is largely owing to the conservation- hat the laws have been observed. iis degree the policy of conservation be held responsible for the "bottling of Alaska.

ere are two ways of remedying the ion. The first is to disregard the it laws as the land laws in the West disregarded. This is not likely to n, for the public is too well informed ow it. The second way out of the ma is for Congress to pass new legis- which will allow proper development. new Secretary of the Interior (as e described in an article by Mr. n J. Hendrick in next month's issue s magazine) has concrete suggestions at should be done. His plans and igations will be helpful, but in the nalysis the responsibility rests upon ress. It alone can open the way for oper utilization of the natural wealth which Alaska is endowed.

TRAMPS

THE railroads of the United States estimate that there are nearly half a million tramps that infest trains. The word "tramp" is as f place with its owner as he is with ty, for the tramp does not walk. rides the rods" or sneaks into box r even travels on the roofs of pass- cars. What proportion of this ling public ever *works, what propor-* tion is only temporarily parasitic, and what proportion is always and altogether a public nuisance and expense no one knows accurately. Even the estimates of the numbers of the tramp army vary from 180,000, for which Josiah Flynt was responsible, to 430,000, which Major Pangborn, studying the question from the railroad point of view, estimates is the minimum number.

But, whether there are 200,000 tramps or 400,000, it is certain that most of them are "beating" the railroads for transportation, and Society in general for a living. As tramps they are a drain on the country. As criminals — which they easily become — they are not only a charge but a menace to Society. The tramp army is one of the recruiting grounds of crime.

There are three ways to make tramp life so unattractive that it will cease to be a problem: to cut off the tramp's transportation, to cut off his food supply, and to catch him and make him work. The railroads are doing their best to make his journeys difficult, though their efforts are not particularly successful. The country housewife is gradually learning that one "hand-out" merely leads to another, but there is still a plentiful supply of free food forthcoming in response to a plausible story of hard luck.

The states and cities, however, are beginning to apply the work cure. As summarized by Mr. Arthur James Todd, of the University of Illinois:

> Iowa proposes state workhouses instead of "sleep-ups" (county jails). New York has purchased a state farm colony for tramps. Cleveland has a whole system of such farms. San Diego has its municipal forest for this purpose. Switzerland's model colonies, Witzwyl and Nusshof, are held up as our models. Altogether the trend of public opinion and action seems toward the workhouse in its modern form of a work-farm-colony. This is the recommendation of most of the experts at the last international prison congress and of the recent English departmental committee on vagrancy.
>
> Check beating railroads, abstain from feeding at the back door, establish state or district work colonies, and the tramp will disappear. With him will vanish, also, a considerable part of our annual bill for charity and correction.

FOR FREEHOLD FARMERS

WITH the exception of Florida, every state in the far South has half or more of its land worked by tenants. In Mississippi, tenants hold 66.1 per cent. of the farm land. In Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, and North Carolina the percentage varies from 26.5 to 42.3.

In the sixteen states (including Delaware, Maryland, and West Virginia) that are referred to as the South, are 49 per cent. of the farms in the United States, almost a third of the total area, and nearly a third of the improved land. It is a country of cheap land and small farms. There is much good land sold at ten dollars an acre and, comparatively speaking, very little land in the South brings $30 or $40 an acre, which elsewhere in the country would be cheap. Along with the cheap land goes poor buildings, poor stock, and poor equipment. The average Northern farm of a hundred acres has buildings worth about two and a half times as much as the average hundred-acre farm in the South. The discrepancy in the value of implements and machinery is about the same, and in the value of live stock it is nearly as unfavorable to the South. All these things are the accompaniments of a high rate of tenancy and a constantly shifting farm population.

But there are two hopeful facts in the situation. Where the Negro population is greatest, tenancy is now the highest, but to offset this the Negroes are acquiring more and more land every year. Though the average value of a Southern farm is not quite a third of the average value of a Northern farm, its value is increasing somewhat faster.

In spite of all the progress that has been made in crop improvement and in spite of all the discussion of better farm conditions, as yet in this country there is no large rural district well organized in all its social and business aspects. This great opportunity awaits the new Secretary of Agriculture and, in a more restricted area, any of the state agricultural commissioners *who have the courage and vision to tackle it.*

CAPTAINS OF INDUSTRY

WHILE the tariff bill was being passed by the House, the great cotton mills of the Borden estate in Rhode Island closed down to put in automatic looms. These looms have been on the market for years and the Borden mills have always been able to buy them. It may have been merely a coincidence that these particular mills changed to a more efficient basis just at the time that the new tariff was going into effect. But many other industries will be spurred to a standard of efficiency which they have not sought before because it was not necessary. Many industries have read the handwriting on the wall and have made preparations to meet the new conditions that will place them under competition with the best and the most economical means of production of all the world. Many other industries do not have to make any changes, for they are already meeting all this competition. But there are still others which, because they have been under the shelter of the tariff, have not felt very keenly the necessities of efficiency; and some of these which will be most seriously affected adversely by the changes have been the slowest to readjust themselves. Their dependence has sapped their courage. Some of these concerns will probably succumb, and will be replaced by industrial plants that more nearly represent our new age, for we are no longer on the defensive industrially. We no longer need to hide behind a wall. We have climbed over it and gone to meet foreign competition in the four corners of the earth. The United States is now one of the three great exporters of manufactured goods. Almost half our exports are the products of our factories. We have come to the time when we must frankly face the fact that we can adjust ourselves to foreign competition in our home markets as well as elsewhere, especially when the lower duties on raw materials overcome for many of our manufacturers a handicap under which they formerly labored. And our domestic business needs the impetus of more and wider markets.

Meeting new conditions and conquering

markets is a task that requires
e, courage, and sagacity, but we
ıppily come to a time when we in
ok to our manufacturers to become
s of industry ready to lead their
ganized forces into the battle for
ırld's trade without the helping
the tariff at home or its hindering
abroad.

E BUSINESS OF BEING A DIRECTOR

RECENT decision in the New York state courts reaffirmed the well known legal fact that directors are ible for the acts of their corporation r the acts are done under their n or their neglect. A director is, a trustee of other people's interests. is an active responsibility—at least it is so. Practically, in spite of ussion of recent years, the dummy s are not extinct. There are ls of directors of corporations who eir name and their influence to a ı, but not their direction. Usually, ious results happen, because the r, the president, or some other rs do their work well. Even when do go wrong, dummy directors are ten sued for their neglect. The s of being a director is one of those for which the law sets very high ut which without ill intention have into loose practices. These loose es might easily become a colossal if two or three flagrant examples fix the public mind upon them. If al eye were turned upon them a any men of only the best intentions be found in the embarrassing posi- having accepted a position of trust having failed in its execution. The prevent a scandal about directors not fulfil their trusts is now, when blic mind is not inflamed.

such a reform in the business of a director would have a very im- t bearing upon what the Congres- Committee under Mr. Stanley "The Money Trust," which is more or less than a series of king directorates.

For example, suppose one man is a director of a steel company, a banking house, and a railroad. The railroad sells its securities to the banking house and buys rails from the steel company. This one man is directing business with himself in his various capacities. He is acting as a trustee for three sets of investors that deal with one another. It is hardly conceivable that their interests should always be identical. When they are antagonistic, which interest does he favor? Legally, a man cannot be trustee for two conflicting interests. The same principle would seem to say that when we look upon the duties of directors with a close scrutiny they also should not direct conflicting interests. But there has not been this close scrutiny by investors, and a nice regard for these conflicting interests is not generally observed. The control of many corporations has been in the hands of the "interlocking" directors, and their good will is a very tangible asset. Yet as Mr. Baker, of the First National Bank, said, "the concentration has gone far enough." The law and morals of trusteeship point to many cases of interlocking directorates that are not strictly defensible. It is a good opportunity to clean house before some flagrant scandal call down the public wrath upon the present habits and find well meaning directors exposed to public indignation and beyond the pale of the law which they have long disregarded.

The rights and duties of corporations, and corporation directors and officers, are such active questions in the public mind and in legislative chambers that it is only a wise provision of safety for directors actively to direct such corporations as they can with propriety direct and to cease to be directors in corporations in which conflicting interests prevent them from giving their undivided efforts.

A REMARKABLE STUDY OF A RURAL COMMUNITY

ONE of the most fruitful and interesting and human approaches to the problem of a better organization of country life appears in a recent publication of the University of Minne-

sota, forbidingly entitled "A Social and Economic Survey of a Rural Township in Southern Minnesota." Under this dry-as-dust title is Mr. G. P. Warber's sympathetic and luminous study of the life of a group of farmers in the Northwest.

Mr. Warber spent three months — June, July, and August of last year — visiting and questioning the inhabitants of a typical farming community six miles square. He learned from the men how farming has changed and what the change means in money and labor; from the women, what housework on the farm is to-day; from the boys and girls, why country life does not attract them. Here are a few of his observations and conclusions, from seventy-five pages that are crowded with many interesting human experiences:

Under the old-fashioned system of grain farming, the rush of work was limited to a few months of the year, and the labor was made easier by the use of farm machinery. Under the new diversified farming, and especially because of the care of more live stock, farm work demands the farmers' whole time the year round; and consequently social life, in spite of rural telephones, has declined. Twenty-three per cent. of the farmers declared that their "biggest problem is to get satisfactory help." Women's work on the farm has been eased by running water, washing machines, etc., but in 29 per cent. of the homes the women run the lawnmower to keep the front yard (average size, one eighth of an acre) neat and trimmed; in 32 per cent. of the families the women help with the milking and the barnyard chores; in 16 per cent. the women help in the field work at the rush season; and in practically all the families the women work from five o'clock in the morning until nine or later at night.

The marketing of farm products is much more convenient and efficient than it was in earlier days because the railroads, grain elevators, and creameries have brought the markets nearer. Coöperative enterprises have generally succeeded, but oddly enough many of the farmers — even those who belong to the successful associations — doubt the capacity of their own class to coöperate.

The rural free delivery service has finished the work of the railroads and the towns in *putting the crossroads* stores out of business. *Most of the trading is done* in the towns, and the country girls dress in the styles of the cities. Not one farmer in the township has ever heard of the new agitation for better agricultural credit. Interest in politics has very greatly declined. Although farm journals are kept in 84 per cent. of the homes, only 47 per cent. of the farmers read them. The farmers read little of their newspapers except the headlines, and rarely ever the editorials. Only 14 per cent. of the farmers ever attended farmers' institutes, and a majority are prejudiced against scientific methods of farming.

Only two schools are well enough equipped to get first-class state aid. Teachers' salaries vary from $30 to $50 a month. The farmers generally believe that the high schools in the nearby towns tend to lower the moral standards of the children. Membership in and attendance at church have fallen off — partly, again, because of the unremitting care of live-stock. Social distinctions have grown up between rich and poor and between the country folk and the townspeople. Dancing is the most popular recreation of the boys and girls. Baseball is the most popular strictly-boys' amusement. The girls are leaving the farms in larger numbers than the boys, though among the grown people the men are more anxious to move to town. Social causes account for the removal in most instances.

These quotations give only some of the results of Mr. Warber's researches; they do not even suggest the freshness of his viewpoint nor the convincing verisimilitude of his narrative. Any one who wishes to understand what country life is in a characteristic American farming community, as distinguished from our conventionalized or preconceived notions of it, cannot do better than to read this pamphlet. It makes plain nearly every aspect of the problem that lies before those earnest folk who are trying to organize rural life and, of course, such surveys are the foundation upon which improvement can be effected. They form the diagnosis of our rural ills.

A MEETING OF SHOVELS

ON MAY 24th two big steam shovels met at the canal level in the Culebra Cut. Thousands of men stopped work and hundreds of whistles announced that a canal existed from ocean to ocean.

There is still much dirt to dig. There is still much work to do, but the minute the water gates are opened, North and South America are divided, the Atlantic and the Pacific are joined (not literally, for it is not a sea level canal, but commercially). When the ships begin to pass through, the trade maps of the world will have to be drawn again. Our East and our West will be many dollars a hundred tons nearer together, for that is the measurement of distance that counts in the heavy freight of the world. "Rounding the Horn," on which hangs so much of the romance of the sea, will dwindle in significance, and the change will make our battle fleet as two. The continents that Nature has joined, man has put asunder. Even our long mental preparation for the event can not rob of its dramatic significance the meeting of the shovels in the canal at Panama.

THE UNNOTICED FLOODS

A FEW days before the first of June the following newspaper item appeared:

Guards are being withdrawn from the levee districts of Vicksburg on both sides of the Mississippi, although the distribution of supplies has not yet wholly ceased. Planting of cotton and corn will be general by the beginning of the coming week in Red River districts. Congressman James B. Aswell, of Louisiana, has toured the parish of La Salle and the Black River section. He reports that water covers the entire territory for a stretch of fifty miles. At the end of last week there were 800 families in need of help, and the greatest need was for seed for planting and feed for livestock.

Crop conditions in the Melville district of Louisiana, where the overflow from the Atchafalaya break occurred, are excellent. Water is receding slowly.

This news was printed in the *Wall Street Journal*, not as human news but as crop news. The ordinary newspapers in New York, as elsewhere in the country, had by this time ceased to regard the floods on the Mississippi or their after effects. The papers reflect a common attitude. The floods are an old *story. They* happen every year. Their true significance has not taken hold of the public mind. This spring there were floods in parts of Ohio and Indiana, where they were unusual, and all eyes were focussed on the stricken districts. The cost of the destruction was figured and discussed. Yet the tremendous direct losses and suffering on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers every year, and the even greater indirect losses that we bear because of the backward state of the Mississippi Valley, passes with little attention. Now that the Panama Canal is nearing completion it is time to turn our attention to the even more important task nearer home, the control of the Mississippi River and its tributaries.

THE PHYSICAL VALUATION OF RAILROADS

THE first steps have been taken by the Interstate Commerce Commission in the organization of its small army of experts and assistants who are to make a physical valuation of the railroads.

There are in the United States 250,000 miles of railroad lines, with a combined capital value of more than 15 billion dollars. By the Act of Congress which provided for the valuation, the Interstate Commerce Commission is required, among other things, to "ascertain and report in detail as to each piece of property owned by every common carrier, the original cost to date, the cost of reproduction, the cost of reproduction less depreciation;" to analyze the methods by which these costs are obtained; and to "ascertain and report separately other values and elements of value, if any."

Put briefly, what this contemplates is a huge inventory, which the Commission is allowed five years to complete, and which it is estimated will cost the Government $6,000,000 and the railroads themselves as much more.

The Commission has always contended that it could not determine the reasonableness of railroad rates, as it is expected to do, without knowing the actual value of railroad property; though there are a good many people, even outside the ranks of the

railroad men, who believe that it would be difficult to show that such value properly enters into the question of rate-making at all. But there is less difference of opinion about the suggestion that the figures of the railroads' valuation could be used to determine their proper capitalization. The Commerce Commission, however, does not now have the power to regulate the issuance of railroad securities, and though it believes it ought to have this power, that is a question for some future Congress to settle.

Meanwhile, the railroad officials are giving to the Commission their most cordial support and coöperation. They make no secret of their belief that a fair appraisal of their properties will show the actual value to be much in excess of the present capitalization; and that they will, therefore, benefit ultimately by having much of the investors' lost confidence restored to them.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANK SUCCESS

THE United States postal savings banks have been in operation for two years. In their first year they had deposits of $11,000,000 which in the second year rose to $28,000,000. The money orders sent abroad in the meanwhile dropped $12,000,000.

The success of these Government banks has not lain altogether in expected lines. They have not tempted the savings of the farmer to any great extent. They have not been as well patronized in the South or in New England as Government officials had expected. On the other hand, in the large cities in the other parts of the country, particularly among the foreigners, they have been popular. Chiefly from this foreign patronage the postal savings banks have brought nearly $30,000,000 into circulation in the United States which otherwise would have been hoarded or sent abroad.

From a financial standpoint, as well as from a wish to give encouragement and safety to the men who can save only a little money, *the postal banks* have deserved *their place in our scheme* of things.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF THE JAPANESE QUESTION

WITH few exceptions the American newspapers have maintained a cordial attitude toward Japan. Even those which considered its protests groundless and its wishes inimical to our welfare phrased their beliefs in a way that showed all friendliness underneath their disagreement. It was treated as a temporary difficulty.

The English, on the other hand, if the London *Times* voices their views, look upon the California anti-alien agitation as a little part of a great question. Editorially the *Times* said:

> The ultimate point in dispute does not affect the United States alone, still less the state of California. It is essentially a world question. That Japan's claim should first have become an acute cause of trouble in California is due to the accident of propinquity. California is now the frontier line of white races, beyond which are the teeming populations of Asia. We shall not judge this question aright unless we first seek to make allowance for the nervous apprehension which undoubtedly pervades the inhabitants of the Pacific slope. Their fears are exaggerated and premature but they are not entirely groundless.
>
> No useful purpose will be served by blind condemnation of the tendencies of public opinion in Western states. They spring not so much from race hatred as from the instinct of self-preservation, and even if the present minor dispute is disposed of they will assuredly recur. It is an issue that will become more and more insistent whatever may be settled now, and it will have to receive the earnest attention of all white races in time to come.

Wherever the Japanese as settlers have come in contact with the Anglo-Saxons in the same capacity, in British Columbia, in Australia, and in California, the result has been mutually unsatisfactory. The two peoples do not mix well. The restrictions that Japan has maintained against American land-owning within its borders would seem proper to continue, and wherever the owning of land by Japanese in this country would lead to unpleasantness it would seem wise not to allow it, providing, of course, that all treaties shall be observed.

ORE WINE AND OSTRICH FEATHERS

URING the nine months from August 1, 1912, to May 1, 1913, more than $50,000,000 worth of of art were imported into the United . During the same period in 1911-12 rresponding figure was $30,000,000 e year before that $20,000,000. The tations this year are a new high in value.

he same nine months $35,000,000 of diamonds and other precious came in; and this figure has been ed only once.

$7,500,000 worth of wines that in in these nine months is more alf million dollars' worth than came previous year, and the $9,500,000 or imported feathers is three and ter million dollars more than was n 1910.

tainly there are some classes at least re not feeling the effects of the high f living when wines, diamonds, and i feathers are coming into the coun- n increasing volume. And these are not like the much abused r's automobile. They do not se the efficiency of living among oducing classes.

II

high cost of living has not pinched sperately. We are still importing nd more luxuries and wasting money ie, wasting money not only privately ublicly. Ours is not a paternalistic nment. It is not burdened with all mplexities of the German Govern- for example. Compared with other ies, our city, state, and National iments engage in few commercial en- es. Yet the combined taxes to meet al, state, and National needs amount rly $40 for every man, woman, and in the United States. The recent ir vote of the state of New York to a second bond issue of $50,000,000 ds is a fair example of our careless le toward public expenditures. The in New York want good roads. nple method of *borrowing the* money and building them is proposed and accepted by popular vote. Yet there is every indication from the past that the roads built with this $50,000,000 will have to be rebuilt with more borrowed money two or three times before this present loan is paid off.

An average tax of $40 a head all over the country means that a family of five pays $200. A man earning $3 a day earns only a little more than $900 in a year. The $200 is a large proportion of that. The $200 is just 5 per cent. of a salary of $4,000 a year. Of course, if the tax were collected directly and the facts of the situation touched everyone's pocket nerve in a way that could not be disguised, there would be a tremendous outcry immediately. But a large proportion of the population lives in the ignorant belief that it pays no taxes at all, or, if any, only a negligible amount. The taxes that it pays under the disguise of rent, transportation, food, and clothing do not appear as taxes at all.

But the remedy for the situation is not to abandon any good works which are being done in order thereby to decrease the burden of taxation. On the contrary, true economy calls for us to redouble our efforts in the improvement of our roads, schools, sanitation, and many other functions, particularly of the local and state governments. But in redoubling our energy in the betterment of these institutions of progress we can well quadruple the scrutiny that we bestow upon the expenditure of the public funds.

STUDYING FOREIGN FARMING

THE American commission that is abroad studying agricultural cooperation, marketing, and credit will return in the latter part of this month. Soon after that the seven members appointed by the President will render their report to Congress. Awaiting their report is a committee of seven governors who intend to draft state legislation to further coöperation and other improvements in the organization of country life.

It is difficult to know what legislative results to expect from the commission's report. There is not likely to be much

information in it that is not already accessible in this country.

But from the trip of the commission itself a great deal is to be expected. It is composed of more than a hundred members, and they represent three fourths of the states. Every one of these men will be a centre of inspiration for the better organization of country living. They will have the conviction and enthusiasm that men get from seeing things themselves. The knowledge which they gain abroad will be a living knowledge ready to produce results.

FOR A NATURAL NATIONAL HIGHWAY

CALIFORNIA is now at work upon an unusual plan of state highway building. Two years ago the state bonded itself for $18,000,000 for public road improvement upon two original principles: First, that none of the usual restrictions were placed upon the time in which the highways should be built except that the work should be done as fast as possible; and second, that the routes of these roads were practically pre-determined by the law, because they were limited to two trunk lines from Oregon to Mexico — one line along the coast and one line down the great central valley — that should be as direct as possible, with only those laterals that might be indispensable to connect centres of population with the trunk roads. About 1,800 miles of trunk line road and about 900 miles of lateral roads will be built.

The purpose behind this plan was to provide an object lesson in road-making to the counties and an irresistible incentive to them to build local systems of good roads that should connect with the trunk lines. Under direction of the state highway commission, contractors are already building 206 miles of the system; and plans and routes for 74 miles more have been approved. The stimulating effect upon the cities and counties is already apparent. Four cities are at work spending altogether $164,000 on the permanent improvement of the streets within their limits that carry the highway through their territory. San Mateo County has issued bonds for $1,250,000 to improve 110 miles of connecting roads. Commercial bodies in twenty other counties are coöperating with the public officials to provide bond issues for similar local systems of good roads. Every county in the state has agreed to furnish all rights of way and to construct all necessary bridges for the trunk lines within its jurisdiction, without cost to the state.

If every state would solve its roads problem in some such way as this, the work of connecting the state systems into "national" highways would be simple, and these interstate highways would then be really national, for they would be intercommunicating north and south as well as east and west. And national legislators would be freed of the embarrassments and temptations of that new "pork barrel" which is so difficult to divorce from the scheme for Federal aid to a "national" system of roads.

II

But there is one difficulty which the California plan would encounter, a difficulty which California has already encountered. The state authorized the sale of $18,000,000 worth of bonds. It has sold about a third of them in a reluctant market. The same difficulty would undoubtedly confront other states if they were to begin to bond themselves upon a large scale for road-building.

Senator Bourne, of Oregon, has prepared a scheme for national aid to the states in their road-building campaigns which would in a large measure overcome this financial difficulty, and which would at the same time allow a smaller opportunity for a raid upon the Federal Treasury than any of the other plans of Federal aid which have been proposed.

His plan is much the same as the plan that was proposed in North Carolina for the state to pursue in helping the counties. It amounts practically to a guarantee of the counties' bonds so that they may utilize the better credit facilities of the state. Senator Bourne's plan similarly means the guarantee of the state bonds so that they may use the better credit facilities of the National Government.

Under the Senator's plan every state

would be allowed to issue a certain amount of 4 per cent. bonds and deposit them in the Federal treasury. The National Government would then issue its own 3 per cent. bonds, and pay the states for their bonds from the proceeds of the sale of its own.

If, for example, the states deposited $200,000,000 worth of 50-year 4 per cent. bonds in the Treasury of the United States, and the Government issued the same amount of 3 per cent. bonds, it would secure $8,000,000 interest a year and pay $6,000,000. On the $2,000,000 difference, according to the Senator's plan, the United States Government would allow the states 3 per cent. annual compound interest. At this rate, at the end of 46.89 years this sinking fund would amount to $200,000,000, enough to pay off the National bonds and return the state bonds to the state treasuries cancelled.

In return for the privilege of having the aid of the national credit facilities the states will have to agree to maintain certain standards of construction and maintenance — particularly maintenance —and if the Government inspection should prove that the road money was not being effectively spent, it could be withheld.

The apportionment of the amount that every state could borrow from the Government is based upon area, population, property valuation, and the present mileage of roads. It would allow the different states to borrow as shown in the table above, with the provision that no state would borrow more than 20 per cent. of its allotment in any one year.

The Senator claims for this apportionment that, being fixed, it would prevent a Congressman from being held "unsatisfactory or inefficient unless he succeeded

State	Apportionment to each state		State	Apportionment to each state	
	Per cent.	Amount		Per cent.	Amount
Alabama	1.72	$17,200,000	Nevada	1.11	11,100,000
Arizona	1.13	11,300,000	New Hampshire	.51	5,100,000
Arkansas	1.44	14,400,000	New Jersey	1.77	17,700,000
California	3.59	35,900,000	New Mexico	1.35	13,500,000
Colorado	1.59	15,900,000	New York	7.86	78,600,000
Connecticut	.87	8,700,000	North Carolina	1.74	17,400,000
Delaware	.14	1,400,000	North Dakota	1.56	15,600,000
Florida	.95	9,500,000	Ohio	5.02	50,200,000
Georgia	2.45	24,500,000	Oklahoma	2.33	23,300,000
Idaho	1.16	11,600,000	Oregon	1.66	16,600,000
Illinois	3.94	39,400,000	Pennsylvania	5.65	56,500,000
Indiana	2.51	25,100,000	Rhode Island	.39	3,900,000
Iowa	2.50	25,000,000	South Carolina	1.15	11,500,000
Kansas	3.28	32,800,000	South Dakota	1.58	15,800,000
Kentucky	1.98	19,800,000	Tennessee	1.70	17,000,000
Louisiana	1.32	13,200,000	Texas	5.66	56,600,000
Maine	.92	9,200,000	Utah	.96	9,600,000
Maryland	.99	9,900,000	Vermont	.42	4,200,000
Massachusetts	2.73	27,300,000	Virginia	1.73	17,300,000
Michigan	2.88	28,800,000	Washington	1.64	16,400,000
Minnesota	2.59	25,900,000	West Virginia	1.32	13,200,000
Mississippi	1.48	14,800,000	Wisconsin	2.56	25,600,000
Missouri	3.35	33,500,000	Wyoming	1.05	10,500,000
Montana	1.72	17,200,000			
Nebraska	2.05	20,500,000	Total for all states	100	1,000,000,000

THE ESTIMATED COST OF A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF GOOD ROADS

UNDER SENATOR JONATHAN BOURNE'S PLAN TO LEND THE CREDIT OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT TO THE STATES SO THAT A MARKET CAN BE SECURED FOR STATE BONDS AT A LOW RATE OF INTEREST

in securing for his district an increased appropriation."

If it be wise to have Federal aid at all it seems that some such plan as Senator Bourne has worked out — designed to limit the National Government's financial obligations to the amount which every state is willing to tax itself and to limit the National Government's actual work to inspection and advice — is infinitely better than the schemes of direct gifts of money for Federal road construction, with all their "pork barrel" possibilities.

A NEW PROFESSION

MR. ROOSEVELT once, at a banquet of the Periodical Publishers' Association, began his speech with the remark that it was a "pleasure to meet the governing classes." Though this was said as an after-dinner pleasantry, it is true that in the last ten or twelve years the magazines as a voice of the people have come to play a large rôle in our national life. Before that time such long established periodicals as *Harper's*, *Scribner's*, and the *Century* had, as they still have, a very strong hold upon the educated classes, upon people who needed no introduction to art, literature, and the pleasures of travel. There were scientific journals, too, that presupposed another kind of education upon the part of their readers. But the interpretation of current events did not have a large place in periodicals.

But that is now changed. The magazine reading public has been broadened to include everyone who can and will read. The recording of American life in government, in industry, and in its social phases furnishes the leading articles of to-day.

The easiest sensations in this field were the scandals, and in their new-found power the magazines of a muckraking period which is happily passing away dwelt overmuch upon them. We are coming into a period of better balanced judgment and of more constructive endeavor in our magazine literature, but as yet we are only experimenting with the possibilities of usefulness of those magazines that try *sanely to interpret this most interesting period in which we live.*

But one tendency appears very clearly: There is an ever growing public interest in this interpretation; and to supply this demand there is a fairly well started profession of men of judgment and ability who can write the vital facts of progress for all the public to read. This profession already includes such capable writers and students of affairs as Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, Miss Ida M. Tarbell, Mr. Burton J. Hendrick, Mr. Mark Sullivan, Mr. William Bayard Hale, and others of national reputation. It is a profession that should be fostered, for through it the American people will increasingly come into that broader knowledge and interpretation of their own affairs that is indispensable to the conduct of a democracy. The colleges here have an opportunity for public service in the training of such men. And the public can help by according to them the honor that has made the legal profession and the medical profession effective.

TO REFORM CIVIL SERVICE REFORM

THE President, by ordering the fourth class postmasters, whom Mr. Taft put under the civil service rules, to take competitive examinations to maintain their positions, did what Mr. Taft should have done. If it turns out that the examinations will change the proportion of Republican postmasters it will merely indicate that there was political partiality in their selection — which, of course, every one knows there was.

But, though they were put in under the "spoils system," to have taken their jobs from them for patronage reasons would have made the offence against decent government double.

Soon after this order, the President accepted the resignation of two members of the Civil Service Commission. For a short time this will give a few Democratic job-hunters an unjustifiable hope that, after all, the plums will be easier to gather than they at first seemed. That idea will soon pass away, and it is to be hoped that the new commissioners will so conduct their office as to maintain an even stricter defence against the use of the Federal offices as

rewards for party services, and at the same time that they will not allow the civil service rules to maintain incompetents in the Government employ. There are few things that encourage "the Government gait," that slow up Government work, so much as the stringent rules under which the departmental and bureau heads have to hire their subordinates.

Of course, if it is a choice between a return to the practices of the "spoils system" or maintaining the present civil service system, the present condition, in spite of its drawbacks, is preferable. But surely we have come to a time when a reform of the civil service regulations can be discussed without any danger of relapsing into the "spoils system."

GUIDING THE BOY GANGS

IN A recent issue of the New York *Times*, under the headline, "Boys Sit As Judges and Punish Mates," appeared the following story:

When Chief Justice Arthur Aurora, aged fourteen, called his court to order yesterday in the official courtroom of Public School 114, in Oak Street, shame and chagrin were depicted on the faces of two tiny detectives in blue blouses who hung back among the policemen, deputy sheriffs, culprits, and court attendants who filled the courtroom's benches.

The first case the young Whitman of the school, Dionysius Eturaspe, had hoped to bring before the court was that of Pasquale Fezza, of 28½ Madison Street, a thirteen-year-old, accused of jabbing a tiny penknife into the shoulder of William Paretsky.

"Where is the defendant in this case?" demanded Dionysius, in boyish treble, but with much official dignity nevertheless.

The two detectives shuffled their feet and their little faces turned red.

"We ain't got him yet," one of the blue-bloused detectives finally said. "You see, we ain't got no jurisdiction. We ain't only a block or two from school, and Pasquale, he has kept all the time to home where we can't grab him."

Philip Lascal, of the Fourth Grade, was brought before the Chief Justice by a policeman from whose shoe a bare toe peeked forth.

"What's the charge?" asked the Chief Justice of the school Whitman.

"Playing craps, your Honor," said the District Attorney.

"What evidence is there of this crime?"

"I got de evidence in me pocket here," piped up Detective Lieut. Sidney Solomon. Lieut. Solomon came forward, and placed four cent pieces and a dime on the Chief Justice's desk. The Associate Justices leaned forward, and scrutinized the coins with great care. Then the Justices consulted. The result of the conference was kept for the time as a judicial secret.

"Is there any other evidence?" asked the Chief Justice, keeping one eye on the money all the time.

"Yes, your Honor," Salvadore Ciociola said. He was the other detective who, at the opening of the proceedings, was discomfited.

"I grabbed dis for evidence. It's the thoid time I've raided a game, and I know what to take by now." Detective Ciociola pulled from his pocket a very soiled and battered set of dice.

Philip Lascal, the chief of the group of crap-playing prisoners on trial, admitted that he had won all the money in the game. He received a sentence of three days' imprisonment, which meant that he would have to stay in half an hour after school every day for three days.

The simple expedient of self-government had turned the dominant group of boys in the school into law enforcers. Always in school and elsewhere where boys congregate there are gangs. Usually these gangs are a nuisance; very often they are a serious menace to the morals of the gang members and to the peace of the neighborhood. For usually the energy of the gangs is directed against law and order. But a new time is coming, for so many people in the schools, in the Boy Scouts, and in many other activities, have grasped the fundamental fact that if these gang activities are guided most wonderful results can be achieved — results that will leave these boys far better able to handle themselves honestly and effectively in the world than were their predecessors.

BETTER CHILDREN TO TEACH

SCHOOL hygiene has gone far forward from the old-fashioned daily ten minutes of classroom "calisthenics" and from the semi-weekly half hour of recitation from a dull textbook on

"physiology." Such practical things as adequate ventilation, scientific lighting, sanitary privies, organized play, and health inspection have largely replaced the old routine gymnastics and the instruction that did not instruct. Physicians and dentists and sociologists have come to the aid of the schoolmen, and they all are studying together the problems of healthful childhood and coöperating to put into practise the efficient knowledge of science to build a better race.

Consider such facts as these, which they have brought to light:

Professor Monroe, of Stanford University, gathered particulars relating to 10,000 children of the public schools of California and found that 3 per cent. of the children were feeble minded and not less than 10 per cent. backward and mentally dull, needing special care and attention.

During 1909 and 1910, 252,254 children were given thorough physical examinations by the New York Committee on the Welfare of School Children. Of this number, 14,255 were found to be suffering from mal-nutrition, tuberculosis nodes, pulmonary diseases, orthopedic defects, and defective mentality.

In Boston, in 1903, of 23,207 pupils examined, 6,571 cases of disease were detected and of these 5,818, or one quarter, were too ill to be in school, and 40 per cent. of them had contagious diseases. Nine months' examination in Philadelphia showed 5,876 cases of diseases, of which 3,446 were contagious.

It has been estimated that of the twenty million pupils in the schools of this country, probably 5 per cent. have tuberculosis of the lungs, more than 5 per cent. have defective hearing, 25 per cent. have defective vision, 25 per cent. are suffering from mal-nutrition, more than 30 per cent. have enlarged tonsils and adenoids or enlarged glands in the neck, and more than 50 per cent. have defective teeth which interfere with their development. In other words, about fifteen million children require attention to their health.

To meet these conditions, many cities *now* maintain open-air class rooms and *even whole schools in the* open air to fight *tuberculosis, dental clinics* to discover and correct defects of the teeth that lead to mal-nutrition, optical clinics that turn many "dull" pupils into bright pupils, special classes for backward and deficient children, and health inspection and visiting nurses that do an incalculable service toward improving the bodily and mental vigor of the young folk.

These helpful activities lend special significance and interest to the fourth International Congress on School Hygiene which will gather at Buffalo in August. More than 250 doctors and teachers from all parts of the United States and Europe will gather there to exchange information and to compare experiences in this vitally important work of human conservation and uplift. The hopeful advance of American education — especially of rural education — is largely bound up in the knowledge and the inspiring enthusiasm that arise from such gatherings as this.

PRIVATE PENSIONS FOR MOTHERS

PENSIONS for mothers are now being tried under state law in Missouri and elsewhere. Whether such aid can be administered as a function of the State without the abuses that grow up under other governmental pension systems can be known only as time reveals results. The results of various kinds of pensions and state insurance abroad should lead us at least to go very carefully in these things. But private philanthropy, acting under the safeguards of a localized administration and of close business scrutiny, is trying a similar experiment in Atlanta, Ga., and thus far with success.

For the last three years, the Hebrew Orphans' Home, of Atlanta, has "subsidized" orphans that were committed to its care. Twenty fatherless children now are being supported in their own homes under their own mothers' care by funds contributed by the institution. There is room for them in the institutional home in Atlanta, but the trustees believe that the new method promises better results for the children and that it is more economical. The Atlanta home has originated the principle of employing this subsidy as a sub-

for the old method of institutional
ut the idea of subsidy is several
d. It has been used by two large
homes in New York, and by or-
s of other denominations in New
l, at intervals during several years
it usually as a temporary measure
he homes were too crowded to
new applicants. The Atlanta
on the contrary, expects to prove
nnecessary, wasteful, and a poor
ift for the natural plan of leaving
hans to be cared for in their own or
ted homes.

while, the Atlanta institution con-

There are about 100 children in
ered from Georgia, North and
Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and
trict of Columbia. It represents
revenue bearing investment of
100,000, and last year more than
was spent upon its maintenance.
erage cost of support of each child
s $216 for the year. The average
r child under the orphan-subsidy
s been $150 per year, with far
esults. The difference lies in the
ad" expense of the institution.
ears ago the Atlanta home first
the orphan-subsidy principle
is new purpose in view. It re-
a boy to his mother and agreed to
r a stipulated sum every month
his support. In all instances but
method has worked out admirably
permanent solution. No mother-
ldren or parentless children yet
en cared for, but the home intends
nd the subsidy to them. No ex-
ting is done. Every step is taken
y and after much deliberation, for
rd of trustees is very conservative.
ount of subsidy varies to accord
e child's circumstances and station.
s, too, with the number of children
nily, being less proportionately for
n for one. As the family becomes
endent, the subsidy is reduced.
is new method, home and family
disrupted, for the children are left
care of their natural guardian;
under five years of age are sub-
as well as older children; the respon-
of the institution *ends when depen-*
dence ends; and a minimum of overhead expense permits a wider use of funds.

Eventually, the managers of this institution intend that it shall be diminished in scope and quarters to nothing more than a receiving station for new orphans and to a home for the very few children who have no kin at all and are not attractive enough to be welcomed in other families.

The loveless routine of most orphanages has been called "the curse of institutionalism." This plan of the Hebrew Orphans' Home, if it continue to succeed, will transform the lives of thousands of children and mothers.

ANCIENT CUSTOMS IN COLLEGES

THE social life of our colleges, particularly the life at Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, has lately been much in public discussion. Mr. Wilson, when president of Princeton, was the centre of a fine struggle for democracy and scholarship. President Lowell, at Harvard, has quietly been making many changes with the same ends in view. At Yale, the sophomore class precipitated a revolt against the oligarchy formed by the members of the three senior societies.

A college course is four years, and a practice can become an old and sacred tradition of many generations in less than a generation of the outside world. The sanctity of custom is strong to the college man, particularly in those colleges where undergraduate sentiment looks upon criticism of anything that bears the college name as disloyalty. Moreover, a healthy revolt against ancient absurdities has hardly the time to succeed before the revolters have passed their four years and are gone into the world.

Once in a while, as recently at Yale, an insurgent cause will gain confidence enough to demand a change, but usually "ancient custom" rules supreme. With this situation among the students it is necessary for the authorities to give every encouragement to any initiative and constructive imagination that may come up among the students in the management of their lives in college; to encourage every undergraduate to find out what kind of a place he is

in and to use his own brains and character in determining his ways, in other words to encourage him to be a man with some training in meeting new situations. It is a very happy sign of the times that such a tendency is in sight in many parts of the American college world.

A COUNTY COMMISSION GOVERNMENT

A SHORT ballot and a simple and responsible government are hopeful political tendencies. There are two or three cities with managers and two or three hundred with commission form of government. Eleven governors this spring urged the principles of the short ballot in their annual messages, and the Governor of Kansas believes that "states as well as cities should be ruled by commission."

In the meanwhile in the counties, a most important but somewhat neglected field of government, the new idea has taken hold. On June 2nd last, Los Angeles County, Cal., took advantage of a recent amendment to the state constitution that permits counties to try the simplified form of government. It leaves only three officers besides the supervisors to be elected: the sheriff, the district attorney, and the assessor. The supervisors appoint the other eight county officers from the eligible civil service list. The supervisors can, also, have as many or as few deputies, clerks, janitors, and the like as the county's business requires, instead of a number fixed by the legislature, as had been the case formerly.

The whole machinery that carries on the county affairs is not only given a chance to be pliable and elastic but it is at the same time greatly reduced and simplified. For example, formerly the sheriff and the constables were independent of each other, and as their duties overlapped they were in constant conflict. Now the constables are *ex officio* deputy sheriffs.

All the authority is in the hands of the supervisors and all the responsibility is upon them. The people can tell whom *to praise and whom* to blame, whom to *defeat at the polls* and whom to reëlect; and the ballot has been so simplified that there will be little danger of the voters confusing the issue.

An additional purpose in putting the commission government in Los Angeles County, which may also be characteristic elsewhere, is the desire to get county "home rule," to free the county from rigid adherence to general state laws that have been framed at the distant capital.

The operation of the provision for a county road commissioner will be watched everywhere with great interest, for the method of road construction and maintenance, now universal in the Western states, by supervisorial districts and under the direction of the several supervisors, is a clumsy confusion of legislative and adminstrative functions that has had lamentable results upon rural highways.

Los Angeles County has entered hopefully upon a most interesting experiment that may very possibly be as important a contribution to democratic government as the commission plan has already proved itself to be in the cities.

A SURVEY OF OUR ERA

THE Rt. Hon. James Bryce, late ambassador to the United States, world-traveler and historian, recently wrote a brief survey of our era that you will find it hard to match in cosmic grasp of world forces and in graphic power of phrase. It was a few paragraphs of his written address, read (in his absence) before the International Congress of Historical Studies, in London:

What is it that the traveler sees to-day in India, in Africa, in the two Americas, in Australasia, and the isles of the Pacific? He sees the smaller, weaker, and more backward races changing or vanishing under the impact of civilized man; their languages disappearing; their religious beliefs withering; their tribal organizations dissolving; their customs fading slowly away, first from use and then from memory.

From the blending of others with immigrants streaming in, a hybrid race is growing up, in which, as in the case of the mixture of Chinese with the natives of Tahiti and Hawaii, the stronger and more civilized element seems fated to predominate. In other cases, people

e and powerful to lose their individuality ertheless beginning to be so affected by an influences as to find themselves into a new circle of ideas and a new institutions. Change is everywhere, process of change is so rapid that the ill soon be forgotten. It is a past the which can never recur. Ethnologists, gists, and students of folklore are at ecording those expiring forms of speech mbodiments in custom of primitive thought; and not a moment should be saving the precious relics. . .

e is one other aspect of the present age world that has a profound and novel g for the historian. The world is be- one in an altogether new sense. More ur centuries ago the discovery of America l the first step in the process by which ropean races have now gained dominion arly the whole of the earth. The last tep in that process was the partition of between three European Powers a little han twenty years ago.

, almost every part of the earth's sur- xcept the territories of China and Japan, er owned or controlled by five or six an races. Eight Great Powers sway litical destinies of the globe, and there ly two other countries that can be t of as likely to enter after a while into nk of Great Powers. Similarly, a few an tongues have overspread all the ents, except Asia, and even there it probable that those few European s will before long be learned and used by ucated classes in such wise as to bring lasses into touch with European ideas. kely that by 2000 A. D. more than nine of the human race will be speaking less wenty languages.

ady there are practically only four great ns in the world. Within a century the religions may be gone; and possibly ree great faiths will remain, with such ated swiftness does change now move. things which are already strong are g stronger; those already weak grow and are ready to vanish away. Thus, earth has been narrowed through the rces science has placed at their disposal, the larger human groups absorb or ate the smaller, the movements of , of economics, and of thought in each egions become more closely interwoven hose of every other. Finance, even han politics, has now made the world mmunity, and finance is more closely ven with politics than *ever before*.

World history is tending to become one history, the history no longer of many different races of mankind occasionally affecting one another's fortunes, but the history of mankind as a whole, the fortunes of each branch henceforth bound up with those of the others. In these conditions, the historian of the future will need an amplitude of conception and a power of grouping his figures like that of Tintoretto or Michael Angelo, if he is to handle so vast a canvas.

A LESSON IN INVESTMENTS

HALF a dozen industrial securities that were floated during the last few years have dwindled in price from 25 to 75 per cent., and there has been a great deal of uneasiness and distrust in Wall Street as a result of this spectacular decline.

Ten years ago, the same thing happened, but on a much bigger scale. At that time, for example, the stock of the United States Steel Corporation dropped to about $8 a share, cut its dividend, and carried misfortune and distrust to the homes of thousands of people who had bought it as an investment security. The present episode is only a smaller repetition of the same phenomenon. But with this difference: The great holding companies of the last decade were floated in the midst of a widespread financial enthusiasm, and their stocks were carried away by the general public and treasured as investment securities until the collapse taught again the old grim lesson that water will run downhill. In this more recent episode the public temper was more critical. Investors had to be coaxed into buying the modern industrial stocks, and evidence is still lacking that any large part of the issues that have had such spectacular declines was held by the general public. Instead, the bankers who floated these stocks sold them mostly to Wall Street people — little pools of bankers, brokers, dealers, and business men — who are accustomed to take speculative risks. Possibly no great harm has been done, therefore, and if the general investment public has learned again the lesson not to play with speculative "pets" in the stock market, they have bought their knowledge very cheaply indeed.

AN ARCHITECT'S "INVESTMENT" IN STOCKS

ONE day, about seven years ago, a well-to-do architect of Paris found in his mail a prospectus which gave rise to an investment experience somewhat out of the ordinary.

It was a prospectus, written after the fashion of such documents, setting forth the details of the formation of a cold storage warehouse concern in New York, and offering stock participation in the enterprise on liberal terms.

The architect read the description carefully and critically in the light of his technical training and became impressed with the apparent plausibility of the scheme. The company was to be modestly capitalized at less than $2,000,000 — with $850,000 preferred and about $1,000,000 common stock, and the preferred could be had at par, with an equal amount of common thrown in as a bonus.

According to the estimates of the promoter — a man named Bartlett, who was fairly well known in foreign banking circles — the annual net revenues, when the business of the company got under way, would amount approximately to $325,000. Out of this would have to come, the promoter explained, the interest on a proposed mortgage for $1,000,000, but there would still remain enough to pay the 6 per cent. dividends on the preferred stock, and more than 20 per cent. on the common. Therefore, the terms on which the architect could get in, if he were quick to take advantage of the opportunity, would give him a 26 per cent. investment.

As every experienced investor knows, those figures should have served to put the Frenchman on his guard. But he was either credulous or venturesome, and upon receiving additional assurances that he stood no chance to lose, he invested $5,000 of his own money, and got a friend to put in $20,000.

For a while, things apparently went along to everybody's satisfaction. Frequent reports were made from New
on the progress of the stock selling
paign, and finally a circular was is
saying that the property had been
chased and that before very long a
construction work would be b
Then, suddenly, information ceased
forthcoming. The architect and his f
began to worry and, after spending a
deal of time and money in investig
they discovered they had been duped

Up to this point in the story of
architect there is nothing to distin
his experience from that of ign
investors everywhere, who persist bli
in putting money into enterprises w
proper analysis would quickly sho
have little, if any, chance of ever ge
beyond the prospectus stage. But
Frenchman did not consider this inci
closed, as most such incidents are
the investment is found to have vani
into thin air. He told his troubles t
lawyer, and the lawyer, after makin
quiry about the men whose names
appeared in the list of directors of
"paper" company, advised that there
a good chance of forcing the restitutic
the money paid for the stock. In
time, action was begun in the New
courts, and only a few weeks ago the h
est tribunal in the state gave a decisic
favor of both complaining investors,
architect and his friend.

At the time of writing this story,
not a matter of record whether the m
has actually been refunded; nor is t
any evidence to show that the two in
tors may not have to content themse
merely with their legal "judgment."
that is not the most important point.

After reaching the decision that
investors had been inveigled into bu
the stock by false and fraudulent s
ments, contained in the company's
spectus, the court refused to listen t
pleas of the directors that they had ha
knowledge of such statements, and

all equally liable. Here is a state- of the principles of the case, in the 's own language;

ectors who organize a corporation of :haracter, knowing that attempts are made to induce the public to subscribe corporation, or to purchase its securities, imposed upon them a duty which is not irged by wilfully shutting their eyes to its of other officers or agents of the com- as to the methods used to procure money the public.

y cannot authorize the issuance of cir- and other appeals to the public to secure enefit of subscriptions to be made to the ation and not be responsible for false raudulent statements, by which invest- in its securities are obtained.

ere is, of course, a very large class of oters against whom investors would old comfort in obtaining judgment such a rule of law. Fortunately, that is finding it increasingly difficult, after year, to ply its trade success- under the watchful eyes of Post Office inspectors, of state officials clothed with the authority of the rapidly spreading "blue sky" laws, and of efficiently organized investment bankers of good repute. There is, however, another class of what might be called passive promoters — men of affairs and of wide reputation who, without moral guilt have been responsible for the misfortunes of many an unsophisticated investor merely through their neglect to inform themselves adequately about the character of flimsy enterprises to which they are frequently tempted to lend their names. It is an encouraging sign that a strong precedent of law is being built up, by such decisions as the one which forms the sequel to the French architect's story, that will make these men more alive to their responsibilities.

But there will always be a need for the investor to be cautious about putting too much trust in names. There is no substitute for investigation and for the judgment of every investment proposition on its own peculiar merits.

IE INTERLOCKING DIRECTORATES OF WAR

IE FOREIGN OFFICES OF EUROPE THE FIRM NAMES UNDER WHICH POWERFUL FINANCIAL SYNDICATES TRANSACT THEIR FOREIGN BUSINESS"

BY

DAVID STARR JORDAN

(CHANCELLOR OF LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY)

J THE recent Pujo investigation of the "money power" of New York, one phrase came to the front — "the interlocking directorate." We should hold on to this phrase, before t it slip back into the dark vaults : bank, for it has a wealth of signifi- , and it will have much more.

brief, "the interlocking directorate" device whereby one great financial ution keeps itself in touch with many s, ensuring unity of action and pre- ng cross-purposes in the industry iking money.

By placing an active member of a great banking house on the inside of every one of many large enterprises or exploiting corporations it is possible to exert an effective influence on all financial matters as well as on questions of peace and war, these resting fundamentally on finance.

Whether this great force of unanimity in finance is used for good or evil in our country, I do not pretend to say. But it is not an answer to criticisms of American conditions to say that "the interlocking directorate" is a successful method in Europe, that it is the avowed policy of

all the other great nations of the world, that it is everywhere else "approved by governments and public sentiment as essential to the great enterprises of these days, whether governmental or corporate."

It is indeed the method of Europe. It is highly developed in Europe because it fits perfectly into schemes of imperialism. In Europe as in America, it promotes financial stability. It also provides for the steady movement of money from "the careless hands of the public" to the vaults of the rich. It is especially the agency by which the resources of weak or barbarous countries are drawn to swell the wealth of the great centres of exploiting Christendom. The degradation of "world politics" to the ape and tiger level is accomplished by such means. Through its agency war is no longer a matter of emotionalism or of patriotism. Where war is permitted it is strictly a matter of business. Where war would interfere with business, it cannot break out.

The French have a phrase when a crime is committed: "Cherchez la femme" — find the woman. Now when war is threatened or a revolution breaks out: "Cherchez le banquier" — seek the banker. Find out who makes money from the disturbance, and then trace the chain of interlocking directorates which lead to the centre.

The late Italian War had its motive, in a large part at least, in the speculations of the Bank of Rome. The seizure of Tripoli once decided upon, the unwilling King and the ever-ready populace were drawn into it. From Prof. R. G. Usher's studies it would appear that both British and German interests favored, or at least tolerated, this war, as both sides hoped to win Italy to its side in the greater contest which is always impending and which can never come. In the final outcome, Italy was left on the side of the Triple Alliance, apparently because Germany had the greater influence in abating the resistance of Turkey.

The Balkan War was started with a fine stage-play of patriotic and humanitarian feeling in the foreground, while behind it *was a plebeian perversity* and intensity *on which the Powers* had not counted.

But this war was certainly tolerate encouraged by the masters of E The initial suggestion came appa from the Russian Minister (Hartw Belgrade, but the plan of expellin Turk by force found favor both in and Berlin. The final victory rests the French bankers. These were to furnish war funds and war arm at a time when Germany and A were verging on financial distress. Austria, at the end, through losing o of the Balkans, failed in the aim of than half a century of intrigue.

"The Sick Man of Europe" has away at last, but the details of his d are still conditioned on Servian an garian obstinacy, and on the neces safeguarding the many ventures an cessions that the Banque Ottoman its French syndicates have in Mac and Thrace. And as French in virtually control Turkey in Europe, Turkey in Asia dominated by the sche Bank, that "nation within a n which replaces the Sultan as master

rest of his domain. According to a T writer, "Darius," "This bank drai itself the riches of the land, exha not the working class alone, but a nation, which is dying from its operat

A little war helps those who f troubled waters. A great war ruins and may force rival interlocking torates into unprofitable conflicts each other. There is no gain in fi lions against tigers or foxes against w It is only in weak and succulent n that a revolution may pay its way.

Of the hundreds of revolutions, bi little, in the smaller countries of An probably nine out of every ten ha behind it the money of some sync American, German, English, or F with a concession of some sort at Brigandage pure and simple is not able nor possible for long, unless tained by some interest working t definite results. Most of the petty in tropical America would come speedy end if foreign adventurer syndicates should all confine them to legitimate business, that is, to which will bear publicity.

l in a table bearing date of 1904, ıe Deutsche Bank of Berlin was ıted by interlocking directorates different industrial, transportation, oiting companies. The Dresdener ras represented in 191, the Bank of häussenscher in 211, the Darm- Bank in 161, and the Disconto :haft in 110. These figures may)led by this time, and each of these has many branches or minor hments over which it has entire Doubtless, too, these and other in Berlin, Paris, London, and interlock with one another. They y connect with the great armament tes, so powerful and so profitable,)p, Schneider, Armstrong, Vickers- and the rest. Still more important re significant is the fact that these establishments, by interlocking ments, stand very close to the)owers in their respective nations. ermany we may fairly regard the ır as the centre of a gigantic mutual ıent organization, with its three s of aristocracy, militarism, and all the powers of the State, military as diplomatic, being placed at the of the combined interests. In so ther nations are "Powers," the fact to the influence of similar interlocking combinations. This is certainly true in England, France, and Russia; and "the Dollar Diplomacy" of the United States, now happily of the past, was based on the same fundamental principle.

By such means, the foreign policy of each of these "Great Powers" is directed to safeguard the ventures of those great banks which make a specialty of foreign risks. In Europe the governments everywhere frankly make open cause with the interests. The foreign offices are therefore for the most part little more than the firm names under which these interlocking syndicates transact their foreign business.

Whatever the virtues or the evils of the system of interlocking directorates, the evils at least are greatly accentuated when the Government becomes a part of the system, extending its operations in foreign lands by means of secret treaties, by official guarantees, by threats, and by force of arms. A large percentage of the international troubles of the world arise from this one source, the use of governmental authority to promote private schemes of spoliation.

Once rid of the "Sphere of Influence" and of the war machinery which upholds it, and once rid of the war-right of piracy at sea, we could look with confidence toward the dawn of international peace.

MRS. ANDREW, IRONMASTER

IRON WOMAN" IN REAL LIFE WHO TOOK CHARGE OF HER HUSBAND'S UNDRY AND WHO MADE IT PAY BY HER BUSINESS SKILL AND BY HER METHOD OF FRIENDLY PERSONAL RELATIONS WITH HER EMPLOYEES

BY

SARAH COMSTOCK

ONE day a molder in an anvil works in Trenton, N. J., displayed a crushed finger to a fellow-molder.

"Why don't you go home?" ıer asked him. "You could get ' off."

man wrapped a rag around the nd took up his rammer *once more.* "The boss smashed two of hers, and she stayed on the job," was his significant reply.

That's exactly what the "boss" does, and every man in the foundry knows it — she stays on the job. Fair weather or foul, when extra heavy orders cause a panic of haste and overwork, when the plant runs shorthanded, when business

crises occur, it is all the same — the "boss" is there with the seven o'clock whistle. If there is no other way to get out the work, she is ready to seize ladle or molding-spoon, rammer or hammer, and a little thing like a smashed finger or so is not worth stopping for. It is rare, therefore, to find a workman who cares to mention a similar little inconvenience of his own, since the "boss" is a woman. In short, she is the Iron Woman in fact, not fiction.

Her name is Mrs. Harriet White Fisher Andrew, and from the plant which she owns and operates in Trenton go forth anvils and vises to every part of the globe. There is not a job in the works, from the primitive, muscular task of charging the cupola to the skilled nicety of running the pneumatic chipper, which she does not know as much about as any of the half a hundred men in her employ. She lives, she moves, she has her being always in the midst of iron creation; she knows iron, iron only, from whistle to whistle; inevitably, then, the name "Iron Woman" has fixed itself to her.

When the sternly masculine National Manufacturers' Association took her into its membership, it practically announced, "Here is a manufacturer of such achievement that we've got to forgive and forget her sex."

When the Efficiency Society held its convention in 1912, gathering employers and experts in the science of efficiency from every quarter, it sent for Mrs. Andrew to address these ranks of men, because here was a woman who had made such a success of a big work that it was worth while for even experts to hear what she had to say.

When the United States Government ordered her anvils, not only for many of its posts and shipyards all over the country, but above all for the great Panama work, it was because the Government knew her anvil, and respectfully acknowledged that she knew her business.

Her plant is not particularly large. It employs only about fifty men. But on this small scale, as modern industry goes, Mrs. Andrew has worked out certain *methods that are* worth observing by *many larger employers*. Drop in at the factory on any one of the six worl and see for yourself. You will find the smutty section of the old c where the smoke and soot and d many herded factories hang heav the Delaware River lumbers along their pall. If you are not there wh whistle blows, you will miss the beg of her work-day.

She is awake and up at six o'cl the farm where she lives, four miles She motors in to the plant, and nc is lining up with all the clean-l young machinists and the giant-shou old blacksmiths who form her The whistle gives a final scream silent; from the molding room t machine shop every man is in his and the Iron Woman is putting overall.

She wore a neat tailored suit now she is shrouding it in the fitting garment of heavy blue stuff reaches from neck to heels and allo opportunity for fluttering skirts to trouble in the midst of much mach

"What brought me to this," she a briskly buttoning herself into the o "was a little accident that once hap in the engine room. I was standing my back to the belt, and all of a s I felt my skirt going. The belt grabbed it. So I just took hold door casing, like this, and let the sk instead of traveling with it."

She is ready now for the day's In her build, in her every alert, d movement, she suggests power. S not a very large woman; but sh invite you to feel her biceps wit delight of a small boy, and you will s out your fingers gingerly before tha snaps shut upon them. Every tim steps or moves a hand there is a spring in the movement. She is m aged, gray, healthily ruddy, and steel

But she radiates good cheer an manness. Following her through the I saw faces light up when she appro There was an old blacksmith at the — with shoulders that were like tho buffalo, but bent.

"Smith, how's your wife?" asked Andrew.

Smith slowly raised his shoulders and faced her. "Aw, my vife, she very bad," he began, and there followed a consultation on Mrs. Smith's lameness which revealed that Mrs. Andrew had been to see her, would go again, and would see what could be done to get a change of air. When we left, old Smith's anvil was resounding to blows that had taken on new vigor. "I suppose you get acquainted with those who have worked for you a good while," I remarked, as we walked on.

"There isn't a man in my employ that I don't know and whose family I don't know — wife, children, and dog," she said. "When employers get to the point where they realize that this means something vital, both to the employee and to their own interests, we'll see the personal relation developed as it ought to be. When men know that the boss is tickled over their good luck, and has a helping hand for the bad luck, you won't find so many discontented workers. Do you want to know how long old Smith has been here? Thirty-nine years. And a third of my men have been here more than twenty-five years. And they weren't locked in, either."

If you visit that factory you will see for yourself that it is true. You can feel a spirit of friendliness hanging in the air everywhere like the fine dust of the foundry. "With a bigger corps you couldn't know every wife, child, and dog," I naturally argued. "At least I'd like to tackle the job," she replied.

Her secretary is all but stone deaf; that Mrs. Andrew rescued him from the ranks of the down-and-out when his deafness had driven him there is an interesting sidelight upon the woman. While she dictated her morning's correspondence to him, I had time to observe all the certificates of award which this famous old anvil has won during the seventy years since Mark Fisher, her first husband's father, started the making of it. The old black walnut furniture is scarred, the walls are dingy, dust has gathered on the framed certificates. Over in one corner is a feeble little attempt at femininity, a small looking-glass. It strikes you a bit queer, somehow, when the Iron Woman

MRS. HARRIET WHITE FISHER ANDREW

WHO HAS OWNED AND MANAGED AN IRON FOUNDRY AT TRENTON, N. J., FOR NINE YEARS, AND HAS QUADRUPLED THE BUSINESS THAT SHE INHERITED

winds up her letters and puts on the close felt bonnet which protects her hair from smoke and sparks, that she steps over to that glass to adjust the bonnet.

She is off for her everyday inspection now. Never a day, except during her summer vacation, does she miss it; never a man is hired or fired, never a debated point settled, never a happening of any importance occurs about the plant, but she attends to it herself. She'll stop every few minutes — to investigate why that pattern isn't finished, or how that sand came to be too moist, or who left a sheet of paper where the sparks might fall on it.

"The place is just as it was built seventy years ago," she proudly informed me. "You see, there's no anvil in America as old as ours. Mark Fisher worked out his own process of welding the steel face on to iron so it would make a dead anvil, and when he died his son, Clark Fisher — that was my husband — left the navy and took up the work here, and the plant has been turning out dead anvils ever since. We are making them in these modern days for trade schools and locomotive works and shipyards and every kind of work that needs an anvil. We are still sending them everywhere — China has them, and Argentine, and Constantinople, and that big eight-hundred-pounder you saw being cast just now is going to Russia. We are proud — haven't we a right to be? We sometimes say that the proudest thing of all is the fact that the tools that built the Panama Canal were hammered on our anvils."

"And who is we?" you may inquire — as I did.

"Well," Mrs. Andrew admits, "I guess we is — I."

Years ago Harriet White, product of a young ladies' classical seminary and of a finishing course abroad, married Clark Fisher. In 1899, he was stricken desperately sick; word went around that he

ON HER DAILY TOUR OF INSPECTION

MRS. ANDREW HAS NEVER HAD A STRIKE AND SHE ATTRIBUTES THIS GOOD FORTUNE TO HER PERSONAL INTEREST IN THE WELFARE OF HER EMPLOYEES

would not be able to resume supervision of the factory. The work was apparently about to collapse.

Next day his wife went down to the plant. She had always been interested in it, as a spectator, and had spent much time there. "Where are the men?" she demanded.

"They went — home — they thought the plant — wouldn't run —" stammered the foreman. "I didn't go!" put in the voice of the shipping clerk.

Mrs. Fisher looked them over. "So you boys are the only ones that stood on the burning deck!" she observed. "Then your job will be to get the rest back here as quick as their legs can bring them."

When the men were all gathered she stood up before them. She was young, she was inexperienced, she was not, in those days, the Iron Woman. Titters went around.

"This plant is going right on," she announced. "And, since my husband can't, I'll run it."

The titters came as near being guffaws as they dared, and there was nudging and whispering. The young woman flushed purple, but she said not another word, except, "Take your places."

She had only a superficial knowledge of any part of the work, but she made up her mind in that instant to give a demonstration which should take instantaneous effect. She knew that the whole future hung on the drastic measure of the present. Straight forward, then, Mrs. Fisher marched, caught up and pushed ahead of her one of the trucks used for trundling heavy tools. Harriet White Fisher had always been a remarkably muscular young woman, and the courage of desperation was in her eye and her arm. She glanced over a row of anvils standing before her; "That one ought to be carried out for finishing," she remarked casually, indicating a two-hundred-and-fifty-pound one. The Polish workmen stood, wondering. She rolled the truck straight up to the anvil she had selected, and, with well-feigned ease, lifted it unconcernedly upon the truck and trundled it off.

MASTERING A PROCESS

AS SHE HAS MASTERED EVERY DETAIL OF THE BUSINESS, BY LEARNING TO DO IT HERSELF

Mrs. Fisher was to have little trouble from that day. She had said that the plant would run and that she would run it, and the men's sneers faded very rapidly as they watched her make good her boast.

She admits herself that there was considerable bluff about those first days. She knew less about the various operations than she appeared to. But she did not ask questions of the workmen. She watched them. Back home at night, she questioned her husband about the puzzling details of the day. One by one she tried every step in the making of vises and anvils herself, until she mastered it. To-day she can take the place of any man who may be absent.

Here is another of the big secrets of her successful leadership; she can and will do anything that she ever asks one of the men under her to do. If one complains of not being able to accomplish in an hour what she demands of him, she picks up his

tools herself, works for an hour by the clock, and then shows him that she has done what she called an hour's work for him. She has assigned every task in her plant by this method; has tried it for herself; and claims that a man's output of work should meet hers. It brings them to terms. Not a man will admit that a woman's accomplishment is too heavy for him.

Clark Fisher lived for five years, but he was never able to resume charge of the plant. It is now nine years since he died, nine years that his widow has been totally alone in the ownership of the plant, although her supervision of it dates back fourteen years. She has an output four times as great as he ever reached.

I saw her take a man from the molding-room one day and shift him over to the machine shop. "Dock'll give you a lesson," she said, lightly. "It won't do you any harm to fill in a spare hour finding out how to run the planing machine."

The fellow was a long, lean young foreigner who had loafed, sulking, as we entered. Now he brightened with interest. The Iron Woman was passing on to other discussions, but I stopped her.

"How does it happen that you take a man from the foundry and flip him over to the machine shop without warning?" I asked.

She laughed. "It's the way I keep men from becoming machines," she said. "Monotony is one of the worst developments of modern industry. That man has been moody for a week. He loafs all the time. Over and over I cure discontent this way. It doesn't agree with me to do the same thing all the time—why should it agree with a workman? Mental indigestion results. Try a change. Maybe that man hasn't enough skill bottled up in him to work in the machine

USING ONE OF HER OWN ANVILS

MRS. ANDREW FIRST WON THE RESPECT OF HER EMPLOYEES BY LIFTING A 250-POUND ANVIL UNASSISTED AND PUTTING IT ON A TRUCK

MRS. ANDREW IN HER FARMYARD

TO WHICH SHE GOES FOR RECREATION AFTER THE DAY'S WORK AT THE FOUNDRY

shop, but the men there will gladly try him out and give him a chance."

Two weeks later I saw him again and his moodiness was cured. Moreover, he had shown enough ability in the machine shop to be given a place there some day.

But she has still a better way to stimulate flagging interest. She makes every man play a part in the game. She never reduces them to blind and dumb parts of the mechanism. She "keeps something ahead of them," as she phrases it. The Government has ordered four hundred anvils. "That is a great order for us," she cries, "let's all pitch in and fill it on time!" and immediately there is a new enthusiasm and energy in their work.

Standing on the scaffold of the cupola, she has overlooked the work of her foundry for fourteen years and she has worked out theories of her own — theories which have turned out to be practical. She watched men carrying molten iron at a hit-or-miss pace, slopping it over and ending in the hospital. "When I went to a gymnasium in my girlhood we were taught to carry buckets of water while we chanted 'left-right, left-right,'" she said. She gave the men a drill. You can hear that undertone of "left-right, left-right" in the molding room to-day, and the hot liquid does not spill now. "What I knew about making a kitchen fire burn taught me to run the cupola," she says. "It is what you have learned everywhere applied to the matter in hand that makes success. That's horse-sense."

It was this "horse-sense," incidentally, that prompted her to buy a farm, run her own dairy, raise her own poultry and vegetables. "I can come out here all used up with some fuss over freight rates or advertising, and it straightens me out in five minutes to milk a cow."

And combined with her favorite "horse-sense" is her process of humanizing the relation between employer and employee; she enters into her men's interests, she draws them into hers. She and her methods are worth studying because they are a success. That is why big conventions of manufacturers want her in their discussions. They know that she has won out, and in a day when competition is keen and labor is beset with complications. She likes to tell you that in all the years of the plant's existence it has never shut down, never missed a pay day, never known a strike. A boss whose men stay by her after a quarter-century of contented labor has something of interest to say to employers.

A NEW ART IN HEALTH EXHIBITS

WONDERFUL MINIATURE REPRODUCTIONS OF CITIES AND FARMS THAT ILLUSTRATE SANITARY AND INSANITARY METHODS OF SEWAGE DISPOSAL AND OTHER AIDS AND HINDRANCES TO HEALTHFUL LIVING — A FLY "AS BIG AS A CAT" — OTHER MARVELS OF THE EXHIBIT IN THE HALL OF HEALTH OF THE AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY IN NEW YORK CITY

BY

JOHN WALKER HARRINGTON

SAY, fellers, that's how those floating baths give yer sore eyes. Gee, I don't go there any more."

A visual lesson in sanitation this, instantly applied by a group of boys standing before an exhibit in the newly opened Hall of Health of the American Museum of Natural History, New York City. This exhibit represented a river, the water portrayed by sheet glass. Buoyed as in the stream was a small model of one of those wooden floating baths which the city bestowed at intervals along the water front. Manikins in trunks were diving from spring boards; others splashed in the cool green water; the heels of one protruded from the sparkle of the tide.

But the grim realism of the representation is in a current which, darker than the surrounding water, flows from the mouth of a neighboring sewer directly into the floating bath. The mimic scene is enclosed in a large square case, placed on a low level, so that the visitors may look down upon it. A placard drives home the lesson that it is dangerous to frequent a bath near a sewer, as for example, the bath at Corlears Hook, to which cases of eye disease and of far worse maladies have been traced.

The old way of instructing the public in such matters was by a learned lecture upon water-borne epidemics; the new way enables the sight to carry an evangel of health direct to the brain.

In this division of the museum, young and old gaze at its ingenious installations and are entertained by its translation of the abstractions of science into the vivid realities of everyday life. The Hall of Health was formally opened last April

and the occasion had a double interest because the municipal Department of Health was then preparing for the first "Annual May Clean-up" of the city of New York. Especially useful as a stimulus to this clean-up was the model of a house fly "as big as a cat." The public may not read as many "Swat the Fly" warnings as it should, but it has been wonderfully interested in this triumph of craftsmanship in blown glass, steel, wire, and celluloid, wrought into being after nine months of patient toil by the sculptor-preparator, Mr. Ignaz Matausch. Here rests, upon a highly magnified crumb of bread, a fly worthy of a swat. Forty times the length of the living fly, and 64,000 times greater in bulk, he exposes the guilt of all his race on a gigantic scale. A glance tells how disease germs are transferred from his padded feet to the little cavities in the sponge-like substance of the

"FLY ON A CRUMB OF BREAD"

THE REMARKABLE MODEL IN THE HALL OF HEALTH OF THE AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY, IN NEW YORK CITY, SHOWING ON A GIGANTIC SCALE THE POSSIBILITIES OF HUMAN INFECTION WITH DISEASES THE GERMS OF WHICH ARE CARRIED FROM FILTH TO FOOD ON THE FEET OF THE FLY. THE SCULPTOR-PREPARATOR, MR. IGNAZ MATAUSCH (IN THE PICTURE), SPENT NINE MONTHS IN MAKING THIS MODEL

A "RAT PROOF" DWELLING AND OUT-BUILDINGS

A MODEL THAT SHOWS HOW CONCRETE FOUNDATIONS AND BASEMENT FLOORS CLOSE THE FAVORITE ENTRANCE OF THESE BEARERS OF DISEASE

bread. Men, women, and children gather about the prodigious pest and read the scathing indictment of him as a carrier of typhoid and other mortal ills.

Then there is a clatter of heels on the tesselated floor, and a crowd of boys, lured by military glory, stop to study two companies of miniature soldiers, khaki clad. One company of lead warriors is winning the bubble reputation at the cannon's mouth; the other, sick leave. It appears from this demonstration that,

HOW RATS GET INTO A HOUSE

THIS MODEL SHOWS GRAPHICALLY THE RELATION THAT UNCOVERED GARBAGE, BROKEN PIPES, AND UNPROTECTED FOUNDATIONS BEAR TO THE PRESENCE OF RATS, WHICH ARE NOT ONLY DESTRUCTIVE BUT WHICH OFTEN CARRY GERMS OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES AND SOMETIMES THE FLEAS THAT SPREAD BUBONIC PLAGUE

erage company in the United
ny in the Spanish-American War,
was wounded in battle, whereas
ne ravages of typhoid one man to
y lost his life and fourteen men
pacitated for service.
of ill-kept and well-kept farms,
e in the same case, are among the
ılar exhibits in the hall. Here
where the open rain barrel breeds
s; where the exposed manure
s to the begetting of a myriad
where the primitive sanitary
nts may send typhoid germs into
ıble garden and into the stream
family herd is drinking. The
of the picture portrays thrift
ıliness. Little signs scattered
two landscapes tell of the right
rong ways of living next to the
her setting shows how house and
gs may be guarded against rats.
ls of the open wooden garbage
of filthy premises are set forth
ct reproduction of a section of a
San Francisco, made when the
lague scare was at its height.
is a replica of one made by the
tates Government. It shows
ts burrow; how they build nests
young; how they may spread
very direction. This revelation
ts of rats makes plain the dangers
n.
he city dweller sees a model
ng the gathering of clams in
which a broken sewer pipe is
g, he is not so likely to think
the efforts of a health com-
to prevent the pollution of
ds and of the ocean beaches.
y is a realistic representation of
being gathered at the Battery
r, accompanied by the warning
king of this spoil of the sea into
may introduce disease.
ole scheme of water supply, the
idemics, the methods of purifica-
of filtration are demonstrated
tely worked out exhibits. Germs
many thousands of times their
e, are displayed in wonderful
ss counterfeits.
tizens who wonder why it takes so many millions of dollars to keep New York harbor from filling up may get an ocular demonstration of the reason by glancing at a model showing how the solid constituents from the sewage of the city are constantly filling up the costly channels dredged to the sea.

The average week-day attendance of the American Museum of Natural History is 500, except on Saturdays, when 2,000 visitors enter the doors. There are 6,000 visitors on Sundays. Practically everyone who makes the grand tour of the institution sees the health exhibit. More than half a million persons go to the museum every year. Although no separate count is kept of the attendance in the Hall of Health, it has been demonstrated that this division attracts as much attention as any other section. It is situated on the way to the bird groups and is in the centre of the building.

AN APPRECIATED LESSON IN HEALTH

SCHOOL CHILDREN STUDYING THE MODEL OF THE RAT-INFESTED HOUSE, A LESSON IN SUCH VIVID FORM THAT IT INSTANTLY INTERESTS THOSE WHO SEE IT AND EASILY CONVEYS ITS MESSAGE

THE DANGER IN WAR FROM BULLETS, AND —

THE AVERAGE LOSS BY WOUNDS IN THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR WAS ONE MAN FROM EVERY COMPANY

The museum's department of health has now been in existence two years. In that time its exhibits have constantly become of greater popular interest. The opening of the new hall represents the working out of a definite policy of bringing the public in touch with the activities of the institution.

One of the most successful developments has been through the high schools. The boys of the DeWitt Clinton High School are especially enthusiastic. Several lectures for them were arranged in the large auditorium of the museum, and they supplemented the lectures with inspections of the exhibits in the hall. Six hundred eager and enthusiastic youths at a time have viewed the exhibition and asked technical questions concerning the various objects. Classes from the Bellevue Hospital Medical College of the New York University are sent to study the models as part of the regular course. Students from the College of the City of New York, where especial attention is paid to personal hygiene, are regular visitors. Pupils from the private schools of the city, long lines of young misses with a prim chaperone at their head, march through the corridor practically every day. A talk on health based on the exhibits in the hall is part of a course of lectures which last year was attended by 35,000 students of the public primary and grammar schools.

Small traveling exhibits are sent by the director to schools, in cases filled with small models and specimens. The museum has been lately raising flies and mosquitoes in large quantities. The various stages from the larvæ to the full blown buzzer are arrested by the use of formaldehyde and then preserved in bottles, which the teachers use to explain to the children how the fly breeds in filth and

— THE DANGER IN WAR FROM GERMS

THE AVERAGE LOSS BY TYPHOID IN THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR WAS ONE MAN DEAD AND FOURTEEN INCAPACITATED FROM EVERY COMPANY

e mosquitoes spread malaria. t is to teach that, though killing be all very well, the great end ched is the elimination of the h is the means of bringing so them into being.

oreign quarters of the metrop- children are the easiest to teach and sanitation. Frequently in of Health one may see boys and ging their parents among the and explaining to them with

WHAT SANITATION MEANS ON THE FARM

ILL-KEPT AND WELL-KEPT FARMS THAT SHOW CLEARLY WHY LIFE IS SAFER AS WELL AS MORE COMFORTABLE ON THE FARM THAT IS PROPERLY MANAGED

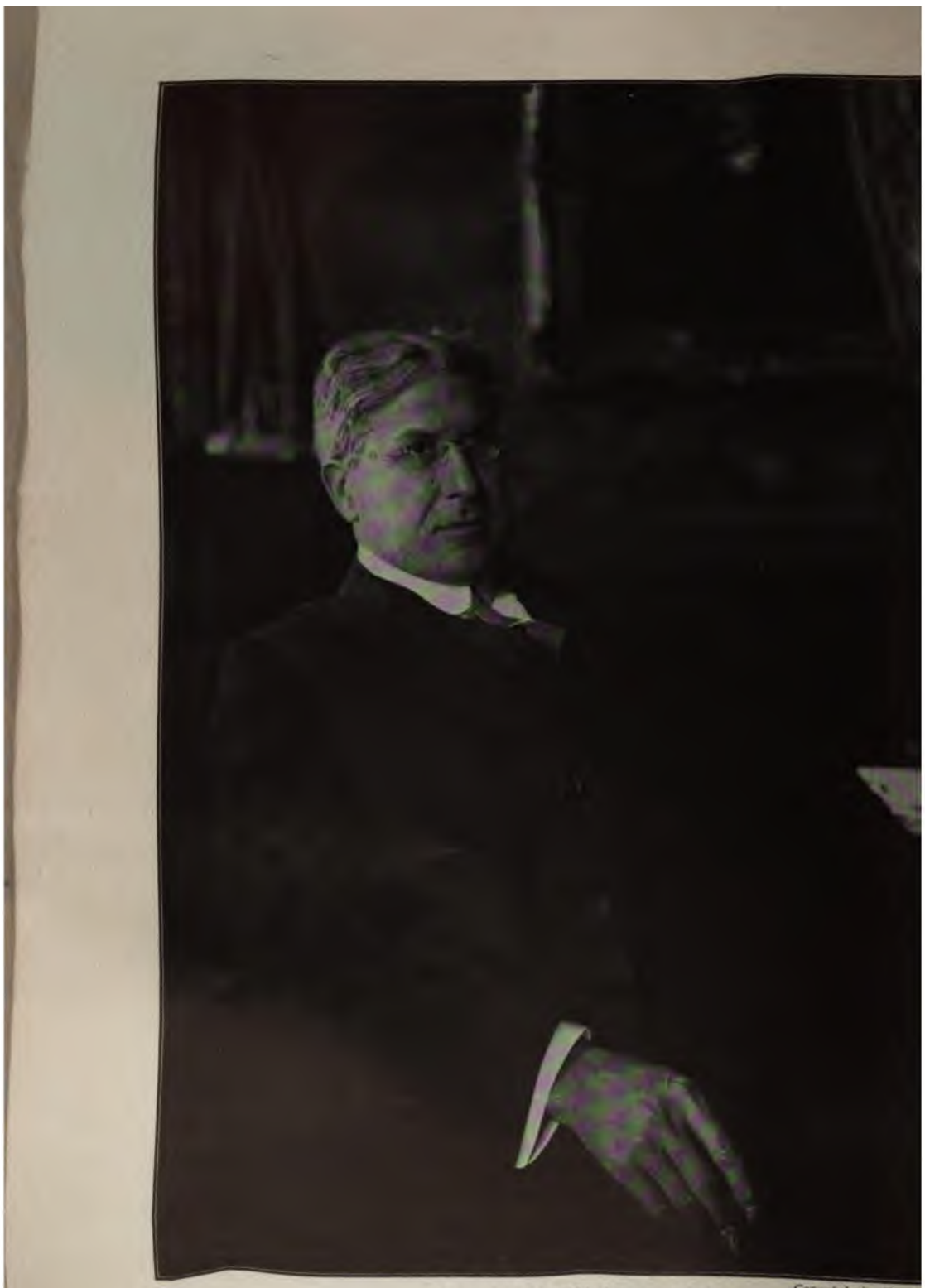
peech and flowing gesture the the wherefore of the display. ian laborers who have been work- Jerome Park Reservoir, where may be made for city water, d among the models by their the uses of these new methods ng sanitation become convinc- lent.

rk of the museum has attracted e of other institutions in this Requests for replicas of the model of the fly "as big as a cat" have been received from museums whose directors would take up health instruction by sight; and such bodies as the Zoölogical Society of Ottawa, Purdue University, in Indiana, and the New York State Board of Health have asked for information about the methods of the museum.

Moving pictures are being used to supplement the work and there are dramas of the film enacted showing how the cause of pure milk prospers, and how the fly, greatly magnified, does his evil work.

In this work of teaching the public important lessons for their own well-being by means of museum display, the deep learning of the specialist and the skill of the sculptor, preparator, and taxidermist are coördinated for a common cause.

Formerly, nature museums were repositories for fossils and stuffed animals; now, they house exhibits that teach mankind the proper way to live.



MR. LINDLEY M. GARRISON

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SECRETARY OF WAR, WHO HAS TAKEN A VIGOROUS STAND AGAINST POLITICAL
IN THE ARMY AND WHO HAS REVEALED HIS DEFINITE VISION OF A WIDER USEFULN
A NEW EFFICIENCY FOR OUR NATIONAL FIGHTING MACHINE

WHO GOVERN THE UNITED STATES

II

GARRISON, OF THE WAR DEPARTMENT

A SECRETARY WHO BELIEVES IN PEACE AND A GOOD ARMY. HIS PERSONALITY AND HIS PLANS

BY

ARTHUR W. PAGE

THE Secretary of War believes in peace. To his mind, the very name of his department is an anomaly. He believes that the great nations of the world can get together and agree to settle their differences amicably.

But until they do so agree he believes that we need an army. He is very positive that if we need an army at all we need a good one, concentrated, trained, and equipped. He does not want a larger standing army but he does believe in a reserve and in the better use of the National Guard as a supplement to the regular forces.

The appointment of Mr. Lindley M. Garrison to be Secretary of War came as a complete surprise to the public. It was an equal surprise to the great department over which he now presides. Probably not one of the people now under him knew that he existed. A piece of "inside information" reached them that a man named Garretson was to have the war portfolio. That little they knew, and that was wrong.

When the announcement was finally made and the public learned that Mr. Garrison was a judge from New Jersey, it was taken for granted that he was a friend of the new President. This was hardly true, for although they had met formally, both being officers of the state of New Jersey, their personal knowledge of each other really began when the President offered Judge Garrison the war portfolio. The President had become convinced that this post demanded the services of an able lawyer (the five preceding Secretaries were lawyers: Taft, Root, Wright, Dickinson, and Stimson) and Mr. Garrison's reputation and achievements marked him as such a man. The President offered him the post. Mr. Garrison was disposed to refuse it. It would interrupt his judicial career. It meant inconvenience. From his own personal point of view he did not want it. The President explained that the same objections would occur if he should ask any first-class lawyer, and said that he did not think it fair to the party nor to the country that he should be forced to take a second-class man because the better men already had work in which they were vitally interested.

THE SECRETARY OF WAR

"How long will you give me to think it over?" Mr. Garrison asked.

Twenty-four hours, was the President's reply.

Mr. Garrison decided the case in that time and accepted.

His first great task is to get hold of the organization of his department and make

MEETING HIS FIRST BIG PROBLEM

SECRETARY GARRISON, WITH GEN. LEONARD WOOD AS AIDE, DIRECTING THE WORK FOR THE RELIEF OF THE FLOOD SUFFERERS FROM THE HEADQUARTERS AT DAYTON, O.

it work for him. His second task is to know his department and his plans well enough to lay them before the committees of Congress so that even the busiest men may read and understand. The coöperation and understanding of Congress is particularly vital to the successful administration of the War Department. Of course, Mr. Garrison has hardly time to do the first job thoroughly, and until the long session of Congress meets he will have no opportunity to try the second. But in the first two months he has done a very striking act:

The first criterion of any man in a position of power in the first six months of an administration is his treatment of the job-hunters and other patronage seekers. It is a thermometer of political and moral courage. Any one who knows anything about the army knows that the most demoralizing influence upon the conduct of officers is that political influence which is used to obtain promotions, transfers, and desirable details. Mr. Roosevelt when President issued two executive orders intended expressly to stop this abuse. But the abuse continued. Senators, Representatives, and other people with political influence were constantly bombarded with requests from army officers or their friends, and in many cases they carried the requests on to the War Department. This condition existed when Mr. Garrison took office. The incoming of the new Administration made it particularly acute. This was the form in which the question of patronage — the conflict between the personal interest of influential people and the welfare of the Government service — came up to Mr. Garrison. It was an insidious form. The regulations were clear that prohibited an officer using political influence for his advantage, but the War Department could not prohibit an influential friend from *voluntarily* exerting his influence.

While he has not prohibited it, the Secretary has found a way to prevent it. He has issued a general order that whenever a request for an officer's promotion, transfer, or detail comes to the department, except through the proper military channel, the request shall be referred to the officer and the officer be required to state whether it was made "directly or indirectly by his procurement, and whether he avows or disavows the request as one on his behalf." If he admits that he instigated it the law provides that he is disqualified from the service that he improperly tried to get. If he disavows the act the department

has to for-
he disavowal
person who
the request.
his order went
not a single
er request has
d the depart-
and a member
gress whom I
about it told
t in one week
put an end to
quests that he
ked to make
the Secretary
r. The army
ghted. Even
icers who in-
d improper re-
under the old
ons would,
f them, rather
o merit than

WITH HIS DOG, "TRIX"
AT HIS SUMMER COTTAGE AT SEABRIGHT, N. J.

"pull" if they only felt sure that everyone else was on the same basis. With few exceptions Congressmen will welcome the end of an onerous burden which wasted time on undignified, embarrassing errands that received much censure and little thanks. In one particular at least the new Secretary of War has divorced politics from the army and the army from politics to the great relief of both.

Mr. Garrison had no military training. He has no military

AT THE HORSE SHOW IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

MR. GARRISON AS A JUDGE

IN THE EQUITY COURT IN JERSEY CITY, OVER WHICH HE PRESIDED BEFORE HE BECAME SECRETARY OF WAR. JUSTICE MAHLON PITNEY, NOW OF THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES, AT MR GARRISON'S LEFT

tendencies. He is a Quaker by descent. Most of his time is quite properly taken up with the other responsibilities of his department — the river and harbor work (though this is done by army engineers it is not military work), the Philippines, Porto Rico, the Canal Zone, etc. Yet the army has at once taken hold of his imagination. He sees the records of the soldiers along the Mexican border who for two years have handled a most difficult situation almost perfectly. There was one complaint from the Mexican Government of an American officer who had crossed the Rio Grande. The investigation proved that he had done so — and more — that he had risked his life to save the lives of the remnant of a Federal garrison. The Mexican Government changed its complaint to a request that the officer's bravery be rewarded.

The Secretary confessed that when he first took up his responsibilities he was a little fearful that some of our fighting men along the border would let provocation lead them into a fight. But he has come to view the border patrol as the chief guarantor of peace in that troubled district. The army has come to be the handy *instrument to restore* normal conditions whether from revolutions on the borde catastrophes at home. The army's M can work the Secretary sees at second h The army in the stricken field of the the Secretary saw for himself.

Major J. E. Normoyle and Capt. J Logan were in charge of the relief o tions on the Mississippi in the summ 1912. During the four months the cared for 272,752 refugees and 54,525 of live-stock. On Thursday, March 1913, these two men went to the College in Washington armed with papers containing full accounts of floods in Ohio and Indiana. They down their maps and began to plan they thought that they might be nee In a little while a telephone message

MR. GARRISON'S SMILE

a:- Department sent them on their
› Columbus with full power to take
of relief operations.
next day the Secretary himself and
ıl Wood left for the scene — left so
y that Major Rhoads, the President's
vent in a full dress uniform that was
to grace a White House tea.
e can't guarantee any schedule,"
ıe railroad officials.
don't care a continental about
ıles," answered the Secretary. "All
: is to get to Ohio in the best way
ın get me there."
as a slow trip. The floods delayed
ıecial, but in spite of this he was
› get in touch with the state and
uthorities and to straighten out the
ls of communication and relief.
a way what the Secretary saw was
mportant than what he did.
ost as soon as Major Normoyle and
in Logan left Washington a train of
s left Chicago. The Major tele-
ıl officials of the Pennsylvania Rail-
rging that it be rushed. It even had
of way over passenger trains.
s at all the posts near the disaster
otified to report for duty, and the
ısi, all the way from West Virginia
Louis, were asked to collect river
rs, launches, scows, etc.
ourse, the flood in Ohio and Indiana
ıe its worst before the army officers
l on the scene, but in the trail of the
ollow epidemics. This year they
ame. They were nipped in the bud.
the Muskingum and Scioto came
ıl relief ships, loaded with doctors
ıccine for typhoid, small-pox, and
meningitis. They organized the
ealth authorities, planned a defence
t epidemics, left the towns fortified,
oved on. And while the army doc-
he navy and the marine corps were
epresented) were organizing the
e against epidemics, Major Nor-
, with his relief plans, got ahead of
od. All the way down the Missis-
where breaks were likely to occur,
teamers, launches, and scows. They
ł thousands of people and the
s provided food and shelter for tens
ısands — all this *going on long* after the papers had ceased to talk of floods. From Parkersburg, W. Va., to New Orleans, Major Normoyle had the flood relief organized, and this with less than 200 officers, of whom many were non-commissioned officers — sergeants and corporals. State governors, health officers, town officials, relief committees, the national guard, all did tremendously effective work. But the ability to organize to meet catastrophe lay with the army; and letters from governors, health officers, and commercial organizations in all parts of the flood district testify that the people who were in the stricken country realize what the little handful of army officers and doctors did.

Mr. Garrison saw it, too. I think it must have been what he saw in the flood emergency that made Mr. Garrison tell me how much impressed he was that we have 3,500 men — the officers of the United States army—trained to emergency and responsibility, men who can be called upon to do anything from establishing an accurate and efficient custom house at a Philippine port to revising the laws of Cuba or to handling epidemics and floods, and who incidentally at any time are ready to risk their lives in any of these services.

To give an added incentive to efficiency the Secretary is carrying out a plan to make merit the sole criterion of promotion. He is sending out letters to all officers of a certain grade with a set of questions for them to answer. The questions all refer to the fitness of the officers who have become eligible for promotion to the higher grades of the army. In the past there has been talk of "swivel chair" officers who attained high rank by their residence in Washington and not by service with their commands. Whether this talk is justified of the past or not, it ought to have no foundation for the future because it is not likely that an officer who has long held a pleasant and easy post in Washington will get the same endorsement from his fellow officers as a man who has been with his regiment — or with as much of his regiment as the present scattered condition of the army allows. The men who get the endorsement of their fellow officers will be the men who are recommended for promotion.

The Secretary talks freely, fluently, enthusiastically about the army and he takes a great pride in the efficiency with which it does all the extraordinary services that it is called upon to perform. But like everyone else who has looked at the question seriously he realizes that it is not prepared for war. It is truly an army of peace. That might not be as bad a situation as it is if it were not for a peculiar delusion that most Americans secretly cherish, the delusion that if you hand an American a rifle you have made him a thoroughly competent soldier.

Mr. Garrison explains this state of mind in some such way as the following, for he is fond of making his points by concrete illustrations or anecdotes:

You will see a man in the morning and he will tell you that he is against war expenditures. He doesn't believe in militarism. He does not know much about the army and he does not want to know any more. In the course of the day he hears that some of his Mexican investments have been disturbed by the revolution in that country. When you meet him in the evening he is all excited. "What's the Government thinking about?" he says. "We'll have to go in there and straighten things out."

You remind him that even if we should wish to intervene in Mexico, we are not very well prepared to do so.

"I don't know about the army," he'll answer, "but there are ninety million people behind Uncle Sam. I guess that's enough."

Not an hour after Mr. Garrison told me this I had it amply verified. I took lunch with a well informed resident of Washington. Something in the despatches from Tokio had angered him. He thought that there was no more reason why we should be anxious to mollify public opinion in Japan than there was for them to mollify public opinion here. He was quite belligerent. Remembering the Secretary's story, I asked him:

"If we should have a war what should we do for an army? Ours is not prepared to fight." "Fight them with ninety million people," he answered, "what *more do you want?*"

The Secretary does not believe much in the ninety millions theory. He thinks that so far as the army is concerned a well equipped enemy could take the Philippines or Alaska. Even our coast cities are not protected. In answer to a recent article about our coast defences Mr. Garrison was frank enough to tell the blunt truth about them:

All systems of coast defense which look to security through fortifications alone are destined to be of little use in time of real war. The fortifications are only a part of the defense, and while they are entirely adequate for the purpose for which constructed, they are fixed defenses, effective only over the area within range of their guns; beyond this range an enemy is entirely free to operate, unless he is opposed by mobile troops.

It was to demonstrate the fact that the great mass of fortifications guarding Boston was helpless to prevent the capture of that city by land attack that the Massachusetts manœuvres of 1909 were held. The attacking troops were landed at New Bedford, and occupied Boston from the rear. This is feasible at any of our seacoast cities, unless the coast defenses are supplemented by an adequate mobile force. The well-trained and armed soldier on his feet is the determining element, and any country which trusts itself to defenses unsupported by a mobile army is destined to disaster.

The Secretary knows that we have no mobile army. That part of our army which ought to be mobile is normally fixed in small detachments in an absurd number of posts, though at present on account of the Mexican situation there is a mobile force of about 12,000 men at Galveston. Both for economy and efficiency many of the army posts should be abandoned and the troops concentrated into tactical units and kept in a state of preparedness. According to the military plans of the General Staff of the army, about 80 per cent. of the present posts should be abandoned. But this measure does not meet with the approval of Congress. The places in which these many posts are situated do not want to lose them. Every state is bent upon keeping all that it has. This situation Mr. Garrison inherited from his predecessor. When I asked him what he was going to do about it he reminded me that the doing had to

ıorized by Congress. But he ad- that he had been thinking over a ı. He lighted a cigarette and in ѕuch colloquial manner as this out a path of procedure:

ose we consolidate into one all ıts in every state. That is a big on to begin with. Suppose we ı every one of the consolidated nough troops to make an economi- effective tactical unit for military ѕs. Suppose we locate the posts in ıg states so that their garrisons can and easily get together for man- or mobilize for active service. It a perfect military plan? Perhaps d neither is this a perfect military ". It is not even a perfected plan but in general on some such basis ht reduce the cost and improve the ıbility of the army. Even the ini- ense of the consolidated posts would ittle actual outlay, for the profits he sale of the abandoned forts almost or entirely take care of it. e state posts fall naturally into · scheme about which the Secre- ıought out loud a little. It is a to popularize the army. This he rs is one of the particular tasks ffice. It is a subject which makes little more animated than usual. ıng round in his chair and pointed ѕeneral direction of the Washington l field and then he explained the ion of "the Senators" with the States army. Every afternoon the baseball park are four or five ıd people yelling themselves hoarse shington. None of the men they ing for are Washingtonians. Prob- ılf of them never saw Washington ıey were hired to play ball. But ıave Washington on their shirts 'ashington's interest and support rs. The Secretary has a notion every state had a regiment or two ıost, these organizations might get ıpathy and interest of at least one ınd the army would have forty- hances of popularity whereas now scattered that it makes little appeal ɔublic imagination anywhere. Per- llinois, for example, *would take* pride in the showing of the Illinois regiments in rifle practice or manœuvres or in war; perhaps in every state some enthusiasm for the army would grow up.

Whether a plan based upon this line of reasoning will popularize the army or whether it will have to be done some other way, one thing is certain: there is at present an almost unlimited field of popular ignorance about the army.

It is not unusual to find men who know a fair amount about the navy. Almost everyone knows the name of a half dozen battleships and remembers the picture of the Governor's daughter or niece christening the ship named after his state. He may even have been aboard and seen the silver service which the state presented.

But not one man in a hundred knows what regiments are on the Mexican border or could tell whether there is such a thing as the forty-eighth infantry.

It is interesting to see a man speculating upon the constructive possibilities of a task when the routine and the details of his business are as multifarious as those of the Secretary of War. A man in that position really holds three cabinet positions. He is Colonial Secretary, Minister of Public Works, and Secretary of War. The direction of the insular governments of the Philippines, Guam, and Porto Rico is a part of his task. The dams and locks and levees on the navigable rivers all over the United States are built by the United States army engineers, and the dredging of our harbors and the building of breakwaters is in their charge. The Panama Canal Zone and all the operations on it are under the jurisdiction of the War Department. I sat in the Secretary of War's office once, when Mr. Stimson was Secretary, while a half-dozen questions came in to him to be settled. They varied from legal points in the Philippines to railroad rates on the Isthmus. None of them had anything to do with the army. The same is true now. A man who simultaneously became the president of the biggest engineering corporation in the world and the legal adviser to the King of Siam would have no more heterogeneous duties than fall upon our Secretary of War.

The Secretary talks freely, fluently, enthusiastically about the army and he takes a great pride in the efficiency w[illegible] which it does all the extraordina[illegible] that it is called upon t[illegible] like everyone else w[illegible] question seriously [illegible] not prepared for [illegible] of peace. Th[illegible] situation as i[illegible] delusion t[illegible] cherish, t[illegible] Americ[illegible] thoro[illegible] [illegible] lawyers [illegible] great cor- [illegible] and Ameri- [illegible] their affairs, [illegible] to the [illegible] have been advisers [illegible] court.

M[illegible] mi[illegible] fc[illegible] c[illegible] [illegible] it was a turn of fortune, most unexpected to him, gave Mr. Garrison a task about the size of both of these with the administration of the army thrown in. Our insular possessions came into our hands through the army. The civil government which succeeded the military governors, and which still maintains about 12,000 troops in the Philippines, is under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of War. Not a great deal of fighting goes on there now but in this connection Mr. Garrison told me an interesting story that Brigadier-General Scott had told him:

The Sultan of Sulu came to New York. (The Sultan came from the Mohammedan tribes of the Southern Islands from whom the Spaniards and later the Americans have defended the more numerous but less warlike Tagalogs and Visayans who make up the main population of the Philippines and among whom are the educated and politically ambitious.) Some reporter asked the Sultan what would happen if the Americans should withdraw from the islands. The Sultan, with outstretched hands and a smile, said:

"We take 'em."

At present, however, the Philippine problems are chiefly legal and administrative, not military, and the same is true of the questions that the Porto Rican Government refers to Washington. It is because of the great amount of this legal work from the foreign possessions that the Secretary of War is, almost necessarily, a lawyer.

In large affairs, even in private corporations, nowadays it is wise to have a generous attitude toward the gatherers of public news. In the government service, of course, it is more necessary than elsewhere, for the Government's work is the public's business. Mr. Garrison is *in thorough sympathy* with what seems *to be the policy of this* Administration — in the [illegible] desire to have its aims and [illegible] known to the public. His office [illegible] is open to the press. He takes a good deal of trouble himself to satisfy all legitimate inquiries about the affairs of the War Department. But there is no publicity man in the office, no one whose business it is to watch for events in the department that properly would make news.

There are a good many men in Washington who become famous because of their peculiarities. They maintain outward and visible characteristics on which the public mind is fixed. It is easier, for example, to make cartoons of Senator La Follette and Speaker Clark than to make one of Mr. Underwood. Everyone knows that the Senator wears his hair pompadour and that the Speaker has a Missouri hat. There is nothing peculiar about Mr. Underwood. He has no intentional or inadvertent advertising eccentricities. Neither has Mr. Garrison. He is a well built man of medium height, with a little more flesh than he would have if he could have found time to play golf more often than he has. But he is, nevertheless, a vigorous looking man. He is clean shaven, wears gold spectacles, and he has a pleasant but business-like manner. He is the kind of man you would expect to find in an inner office on Broad Street, New York, or La Salle Street, Chicago. It is interesting to see such a man transferred to Washington surroundings. For, although his predecessors were New York and Chicago lawyers, their presence did not give the War Department any metropolitan appearances. As I went across the open square to the old building of "gingerbread" architecture that houses the State, War, and Navy departments, the big stone steps were crowded with clerks and colored messengers watching the parade of Buffalo Bill's Wild West Show go by. Near the entrance of the building is an information desk and, every twenty or thirty feet beyond, down the corridors is a little table with a Negro messenger sitting by it. The Secretary's outer office is open to the public. Every five or ten minutes a guide brings in a group of sightseers, and in a sing-song voice points out

that has served the War De-
since 1853, the flag that was
ıt Fort Sumter, General Wash-
vord, and the paintings of various
nd former secretaries. There is no
/e business, common in the offices
eat cities, until you penetrate
retary's inner room. Even that
not that trim, efficient look
›ffices of presidents of industrial
ısually have. But Mr. Garrison
business-like. He has a pleasant
ıl manner, but it does not delay
tting down to the business of the
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ırks is going to be before they
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ng for the end, and similarly,
; outlining his own ideas, he will
say:
ee where that would lead? I
ve to develop it any further."
we were talking, General Wood
with a paper for the Secretary.
iendly little conversation that
Mr. Garrison said that he had
ne Washington gossip to the
t the order to stop the use of
to advance the rank of officers
instigated by General Wood.
sed a little smile from both of
the truth is, the General knew
›f it until it was issued. Of
e is in sympathy with it, but
ıke a mistake in judging the new
who think that he is in any way
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ıise or the blame for the adminis-
the War Department while he
ry will belong to Mr. Garrison;
ying that there can be no dis-
nt of General Wood, or of Colonel
or of the Governor of the
s, or of any other responsible
e work is under the jurisdiction
ar Department.
he Secretary has already done
›lans that he has for the future
o believe in a remark Mr. Garri-
in answer to a reference to his
›rs.
1 rather impatiently: "I don't want merely to draw my breath and my salary here and have the honor of being in the Cabinet. When I leave here I want to leave things better than I found them."

I repeated this to one of the dozen or two men who had had an opportunity to see Mr. Garrison intimately in Washington.

"More than that," was his comment. "If Mr. Garrison does not think he is doing a good service he will leave. I don't think he cares at all about the honor part of it.

"A previous President on one occasion removed a man from a minor Federal office for instigating a newspaper article unfavorable to the President's party. The removal was made over the protest of the Cabinet officer under whom the offender served. It is inconceivable that Mr. Garrison would remain in office after such an occurrence, just as it is inconceivable that Mr. Wilson would issue such an order."

But this kind of thing the Secretary would not say about himself. There is nothing spectacular about him — not the faintest trace of demagoguery. Even his cordial welcome of newspaper representatives, I think, is more duty than pleasure. He considers it a part of his task, and when he talks about what he hopes to do in the administration of the War Department he mentions himself in his relation to the problems before him. He does not speak of the problems in their relation to him.

Indeed, I do not think it is likely that he could play to the galleries if he wanted to. He is the kind of man who becomes a large figure in the public imagination because of what he has accomplished and not from any spectacular or dramatic instincts, or from any personal peculiarities. He looks like what he is, an able lawyer from the eastern part of the United States. He is more like a lawyer than like the popular idea of a judge. He has been a judge and has the judicial temperament, but he accents the deciding part of the judicial functions. Weighing matters is not a hobby with him, but a means to an end.

THE NEW FREEDOM

A CALL FOR THE EMANCIPATION OF THE GENEROUS ENERGIES OF A PEOPLE

BY

WOODROW WILSON

VII

THE LIBERATION OF A PEOPLE'S VITAL ENERGIES

NO MATTER how often we think of it, the discovery of America must each time make a fresh appeal to our imaginations. For centuries, indeed from the beginning, the face of Europe had been turned toward the East. All the routes of trade, every impulse and energy, ran from West to East. The Atlantic lay at the world's back-door. Then, suddenly, the conquest of Constantinople by the Turk closed the route to the Orient. Europe had either to face about or lack any outlet for her energies; the unknown sea at the West at last was ventured upon, and the earth learned that it was twice as big as it had thought. Columbus did not find, as he had expected, the civilization of Cathay; he found an empty continent. In that part of the world, upon that new-found half of the globe, mankind, late in its history, was thus afforded an opportunity to set up a new civilization; here it was strangely privileged to make a new human experiment.

Never can that moment of unique opportunity fail to excite the emotion of all who consider its strangeness and richness; a thousand fanciful histories of the earth might be contrived without the imagination daring to conceive such a romance as the hiding away of half the globe until the fulness of time had come for a new start in civilization. A mere sea captain's ambition to trace a new trade route gave way to a moral adventure for humanity. The race was to found a new order here on this delectable land, which no man approached without receiv-

ing, as the old voyagers relate, you remember, sweet airs out of woods aflame with flowers and murmurous with the sound of pellucid waters. The hemisphere lay waiting to be touched with life, — life from the old centres of living, surely, but cleansed of defilement, and cured of weariness, so as to be fit for the virgin purity of a new bride. The whole thing springs into the imagination like a wonderful vision, an exquisite marvel which once only in all history could be vouchsafed.

One other thing only compares with it; only one other thing touches the springs of emotion as does the picture of the ships of Columbus drawing near the bright shores, — and that is the thought of the choke in the throat of the immigrant of to-day as he gazes from the steerage deck at the land where he has been taught to believe he in his turn shall find an earthly paradise, where, a free man, he shall forget the heartaches of the old life, and enter into the fulfilment of the hope of the world.

For has not every ship that has pointed her prow westward borne hither the hopes of generation after generation of the oppressed of other lands? How always have men's hearts beat as they saw the coast of America rise to their view! How it has always seemed to them that the dweller there would at last be rid of kings, of privileged classes, and of all those bonds which had kept men depressed and helpless, and would there realize the full fruition of his sense of honest manhood, would there be one of a great body of brothers, not seeking to defraud and deceive one another, but seeking to accomplish the general good!

What was in the writings of the men who founded America,— to serve the selfish interests of America? Do you find that in their writings? No; to serve the cause of humanity, to bring liberty to mankind. They set up their standards here in America in the tenet of hope, as a beacon of encouragement to all the nations of the world; and men came thronging to these shores with an expectancy that never existed before, with a confidence they never dared feel before, and found here for generations together a haven of peace, of opportunity, of equality.

God send that in the complicated state of modern affairs we may recover the standards and repeat the achievements of that heroic age!

For life is no longer the comparatively simple thing it was. Our relations one with another have been profoundly modified by the new agencies of rapid communication and transportation, tending swiftly to concentrate life, widen communities, fuse interests, and compli-

cate all the processes of living. The individual is dizzily swept about in a thousand new whirlpools of activities. Tyranny has become more subtle, and has learned to wear the guise of mere industry, and even of benevolence. Freedom has become a somewhat different matter. It cannot,— eternal principle that it is,— it cannot have altered, yet it shows itself in new aspects. Perhaps it is only revealing its deeper meaning.

What is liberty?

I have long had an image in my mind of what constitutes liberty. Suppose that I were building a great piece of powerful machinery, and suppose that I should so awkwardly and unskilfully assemble the parts of it that every time one part tried to move it would be interfered with by the others, and the whole thing would buckle up and be checked. Liberty for the several parts would consist in the best possible assembling and adjustment of them all, would it not? If you want the great piston of the engine to run with absolute freedom, give it absolutely perfect alignment and adjustment with the other parts of the machine, so that it is free, not because it is let alone or isolated, but because it has been associated most skilfully and carefully with the other parts of the great structure.

What is liberty? You say of the locomotive that it runs free. What do you mean? You mean that its parts are so assembled and adjusted that friction is reduced to a minimum, and that it has perfect adjustment. We say of a boat skimming the water with light foot, "How free she runs!" when we mean, how perfectly she is adjusted to the force of the wind, how perfectly she obeys the great breath out of the heavens that fills her sails. Throw her head up into the wind and see how she will halt and stagger, how every sheet will shiver and her whole frame be shaken, how instantly she is "in irons," in the expressive phrase of the sea. She is free only when you have let her fall off again and have recovered once more her nice adjustment to the forces she must obey and cannot defy.

Human freedom consists in perfect adjustments of human interests and human activities and human energies.

Now, the adjustments necessary between individuals, between individuals and the complex institutions amidst which they live, and between those institutions and the Government, are infinitely more intricate to-day than ever before. No doubt this is a tiresome and roundabout way of saying the thing, yet perhaps it is worth while to

get somewhat clearly in our mind what makes all the trouble to-day. Life has become complex; there are many more elements, more parts, to it than ever before. And, therefore, it is harder to keep everything adjusted,— and harder to find out where the trouble lies when the machine gets out of order.

You know that one of the interesting things that Mr. Jefferson said in those early days of simplicity which marked the beginnings of our Government was that the best government consisted in as little governing as possible. And there is still a sense in which that is true. It is still intolerable for the Government to interfere with our individual activities except where it is necessary to interfere with them in order to free them. But I feel confident that if Jefferson were living in our day he would see what we see: that the individual is caught in a great confused nexus of all sorts of complicated circumstances, and that to let him alone is to leave him helpless as against the obstacles with which he has to contend; and that, therefore, law in our day must come to the assistance of the individual. It must come to his assistance to see that he gets fair play; that is all, but that is much. Without the watchful interference, the resolute interference, of the Government, there can be no fair play between individuals and such powerful institutions as the trusts. Freedom to-day is something more than being let alone. The programme of a government of freedom must in these days be positive, not negative merely.

Well, then, in this new sense and meaning of it, are we preserving freedom in this land of ours, the hope of all the earth?

Have we, inheritors of this continent and of the ideals to which the fathers consecrated it,— have we maintained them, realizing them, as each generation must, anew? Are we, in the consciousness that the life of man is pledged to higher levels here than elsewhere, striving still to bear aloft the standards of liberty and hope, or, disillusioned and defeated, are we feeling the disgrace of having had a free field in which to do new things and of not having done them?

The answer must be, I am sure, that we have been in a fair way of failure,— tragic failure. And we stand in danger of utter failure yet except we fulfil speedily the determination we have reached, to deal with the new and subtle tyrannies according to their deserts. Don't deceive yourselves for a moment as to the power of the great interests which now dominate our development. They are so great that it is almost an open question whether the Government of the

United States can dominate them or not. Go one step farther, make their organized power permanent, and it may be too late to turn back. The roads diverge at the point where we stand. They stretch their vistas out to regions where they are very far separated from one another; at the end of one is the old tiresome scene of government tied up with special interests; and at the other shines the liberating light of individual initiative, of individual liberty, of individual freedom, the light of untrammeled enterprise.

I believe that that light shines out of the heavens itself that God has created. I believe in human liberty as I believe in the wine of life. There is no salvation for men in the pitiful condescensions of industrial masters. Guardians have no place in a land of freemen. Prosperity guaranteed by trustees has no prospect of endurance. Monopoly means the atrophy of enterprise. If monopoly persists, monopoly will always sit at the helm of the Government. I do not expect to see monopoly restrain itself. If there are men in this country big enough to own the Government of the United States, they are going to own it; what we have to determine now is whether we are big enough, whether we are men enough, whether we are free enough, to take possession again of the Government which is our own. We haven't had free access to it, our minds have not touched it by way of guidance, in half a generation, and now we are engaged in nothing less than the recovery of what was made with our own hands, and acts only by our delegated authority.

I tell you, when you discuss the question of the tariffs and of the trusts, you are discussing the very lives of yourselves and your children. I believe that I am preaching the very cause of some of the gentlemen whom I am opposing when I preach the cause of free industry in the United States, for I think they are slowly girding the tree that bears the inestimable fruits of our life, and that if they are permitted to gird it entirely Nature will take her revenge and the tree will die.

I do not believe that America is securely great because she has great men in her now. America is great in proportion as she can make sure of having great men in the next generation. She is rich in her unborn children; rich, that is to say, if those unborn children see the sun in a day of opportunity, see the sun when they are free to exercise their energies as they will. If they open their eyes in a land where there is no special privilege, then we shall come into a new era of American greatness and American liberty; but if they open their eyes

in a country where they must be employees or nothing, if they open their eyes in a land of merely regulated monopoly, where all the conditions of industry are determined by small groups of men, then they will see an America such as the founders of this Republic would have wept to think of.

The only hope is in the release of the forces which philanthropic trust presidents want to monopolize. Only the emancipation, the freeing and heartening of the vital energies of all the people will redeem us. In all that I may have to do in public affairs in the United States I am going to think of towns such as I have seen in Indiana, towns of the old American pattern, that own and operate their own industries, hopefully and happily. My thought is going to be bent upon the multiplication of towns of that kind and the prevention of the concentration of industry in this country in such a fashion and upon such a scale that towns that own themselves will be impossible.

You know what the vitality of America consists of. Its vitality does not lie in New York, nor in Chicago; it will not be sapped by anything that happens in St. Louis. The vitality of America lies in the brains, the energies, the enterprise of the people throughout the land; in the efficiency of their factories and in the richness of the fields that stretch beyond the borders of the town; in the wealth which they extract from nature and originate for themselves through the inventive genius characteristic of all free American communities.

That is the wealth of America, and if America discourages the locality, the community, the self-contained town, she will kill the Nation. A nation is as rich as her free communities; she is not as rich as her capital city or her metropolis. The amount of money in Wall Street is no indication of the wealth of the American people. That indication can be found only in the fertility of the American mind and the productivity of American industry everywhere throughout the United States. If America were not rich and fertile, there would be no money in Wall Street. If Americans were not vital and able to take care of themselves, the great money exchanges would break down. The welfare, the very existence of the Nation, rests at last upon the great mass of the people; its prosperity depends at last upon the spirit in which they go about their work in their several communities throughout the broad land. In proportion as her towns and her countrysides are happy and hopeful will America realize the high ambitions which have marked her in the eyes of all the world.

The welfare, the happiness, the energy and spirit of the men and

women who do the daily work in our mines and factories, on our railroads, in our offices and ports of trade, on our farms and on the sea, is the underlying necessity of all prosperity. There can be nothing wholesome unless their life is wholesome; there can be no contentment unless they are contented. Their physical welfare affects the soundness of the whole Nation. How would it suit the prosperity of the United States, how would it suit business, to have a people that went every day sadly or sullenly to their work? How would the future look to you if you felt that the aspiration had gone out of most men, the confidence of success, the hope that they might improve their condition? Do you not see that just so soon as the old self-confidence of America, just so soon as her old boasted advantage of individual liberty and opportunity, is taken away, all the energy of her people begins to subside, to slacken, to grow loose and pulpy, without fibre, and men simply cast about to see that the day does not end disastrously with them?

So we must put heart into the people by taking the heartlessness out of politics, business, and industry. We have got to make politics a thing in which an honest man can take his part with satisfaction because he knows that his opinion will count as much as the next man's, and that the boss and the interests have been dethroned. Business we have got to untrammel, abolishing tariff favors, and railroad discrimination, and credit denials, and all forms of unjust handicaps against the little man. Industry we have got to humanize,— not through the trusts,— but through the direct action of law guaranteeing protection against dangers and compensation for injuries, guaranteeing sanitary conditions, proper hours, the right to organize, and all the other things which the conscience of the country demands as the workingman's right. We have got to cheer and inspirit our people with the sure prospects of social justice and due reward, with the vision of the open gates of opportunity for all. We have got to set the energy and the initiative of this great people absolutely free, so that the future of America will be greater than the past, so that the pride of America will grow with achievement, so that America will know as she advances from generation to generation that each brood of her sons is greater and more enlightened than that which preceded it, know that she is fulfilling the promise that she has made to mankind.

Such is the vision of some of us who now come to assist in its realization. For we Democrats would not have endured this long

burden of exile if we had not seen a vision. We could have traded; we could have got into the game; we could have surrendered and made terms; we could have played the rôle of patrons to the men who wanted to dominate the interests of the country,— and here and there gentlemen who pretended to be of us did make those arrangements. They couldn't stand privation. You never can stand it unless you have within you some imperishable food upon which to sustain life and courage, the food of those visions of the spirit where a table is set before us laden with palatable fruits, the fruits of hope, the fruits of imagination, those invisible things of the spirit which are the only things upon which we can sustain ourselves through this weary world without fainting. We have carried in our minds, after you had thought you had obscured and blurred them, the ideals of those men who first set their foot upon America, those little bands who came to make a foothold in the wilderness, because the great teeming nations that they had left behind them had forgotten what human liberty was, liberty of thought, liberty of religion, liberty of residence, liberty of action.

Since their day the meaning of liberty has deepened. But it has not ceased to be a fundamental demand of the human spirit, a fundamental necessity for the life of the soul. And the day is at hand when it shall be realized on this consecrated soil,— a New Freedom,— a Liberty widened and deepened to match the broadened life of man in modern America, restoring to him in very truth the control of his Government, throwing wide all gates of lawful enterprise, unfettering his energies, and warming the generous impulses of his heart,— a process of release, emancipation, and inspiration, full of a breath of life as sweet and wholesome as the airs that filled the sails of the caravels of Columbus and gave the promise and boast of magnificent Opportunity in which America *dare not fail.*

(*Concluded*)

CONSERVATION THAT PAYS ITS W

HOW THE TIMBER OWNERS OF THE NORTHWEST ARE PRACTISING FOREST PR VATION AT THEIR OWN EXPENSE AND MAKING MONEY BY DOING IT — NEW COÖPERATIVE MOVEMENT THAT HAS BROUGHT ABOUT COR- DIAL RELATIONS BETWEEN PRIVATE ENTERPRISES AND THE STATE AND NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS IN THE WORK TO SAVE THE FORESTS

BY

E. T. ALLEN

SEVEN years ago a few timber owners in northern Idaho joined under the name of Cœur d'Alene Timber Protective Association to develop the most effective methods of forest fire prevention. They decided to seek a maximum of efficiency and justice through financial coöperation on a basis of proportionate ownership. Complete by-laws were adopted, a treasurer was put under bond, and the members were pledged to pay such pro rata assessments as the directors should find necessary to equip and maintain an adequate patrol and fire-fighting system.

From this beginning, contemplating only a local fire force somewhat like a city fire department, has grown a league of private fire associations that extends from Montana to California, that patrols a fifth of the Nation's entire timber supply, that is second only to the Federal Government itself in forest protective expenditure and achievement in the United States, and that probably leads all other agencies in influence for better handling of private forest land and in teaching the public to reduce the forest fire risk.

A lookout on an Idaho peak sees smoke arising from a distant slope and, over an association-built telephone line, gives the alarm that soon sends a trained, equipped crew to the fire, over an association trail and supplied from a strategically located association tool and food depot.

A Washington logger accumulates a dangerous quantity of inflammable débris that threatens him and his neighbors. *An association "slash" burner, a special- ist in dealing with such* fire traps, comes to his assistance, prescribes necessa lines and removal of dead trees from sparks may blow, selects a favorable stations his men, fires the slash right places, and the work is done.

A patrolman riding an Oregon road stops now and then to nail u tree an association cartoon, depict vivid colors the community injury carelessness with fire and giving tra a few simple precautions, or to association illustrated circulars o same subject in settlers' mail boxe

Children leaving a Montana s house carry home little booklets or p teaching simple forestry lessons, d uted by the association by hundr thousands with the aid of the authorities.

Travelers on western trains find ciation-written fire precautions in folders and association books on conditions in observation-car libra

Students at technical forestry s everywhere look to association text for authority on the scientific manag and replacement of Western forests. libraries supply these association to lay researchers.

Readers of a thousand newspap the Pacific Coast receive forest fire collected systematically and issu association despatches, as carefull pared and as accurate as the repo the Associated Press.

Framers of forest laws look to ciation libraries and experts for r evidence upon the principles and exe of such legislation at home and abr

State and Federal forest official

d coöperate with association officials
tematically as they do with one
r, not only in technical discussions
the actual organization of forces,
t every agency is practically a unit
remendous machine of men, trails,
elephones that work harmoniously
Montana to California to safeguard
ation's forest resources from fire.
ociation reports on fire preventive
ds are used as manuals by prac-
all protective agencies, state and
l, provincial and dominion, in the
l States and Canada. Association
fire conferences in Seattle, Portland,
kane, are attended by private and
fire officials from as wide a field.
iation men are, as a matter of course,
ed in local or national boards, com-
s, and gatherings that are interested
st protection.

h a rapid extension of public ac-
s and influence in a movement of
e and business origin is doubly
cant because it has been achieved
mbermen in a field of conservation
it might be expected that the public
prefer less interested leaders.
association succeeded because:
t did work and spent money before
ed others to work and spend.
t applied the principle of coöpera-
both the work and the expenditure,
hereby forced the participants' keen
st to protect their investment.
t scrupulously avoided all work
as not of public as well as of private
t.
t created machinery to force the
l acquaintance and confidence of
nts that had formerly distrusted
nother.
t employed modern publicity
ds.
pioneer Cœur d' Alene Association
oon followed by the Pend Oreille,
vater, and Potlatch associations in
, and by an association that covers
ntire western half of Washington.
have all demonstrated the efficiency
p-rated patrol and fire fighting,
ally because they have been directed
ctical men with an interest in making
dollar count. The *state of Idaho*, a large owner of school-grant timber lands, recognized this and legislated to permit itself to join the associations, paying its pro rata with the private owners and giving association wardens police power. The state of Washington assisted by paying part of the fire-fighting bills, the association doing most of the patrolling and also having police power.

It soon became apparent that this system went much further to impress the public than had individual effort. Careless settlers, campers, and loggers were far less apt to resent cautions from association patrolmen than from an individual timber owner or his employees. The protection of homes and resources was laudable even if not wholly philanthropic, and the timber owner was given credit for doing it himself instead of asking others to do it. With this came the realization not only that far better than fighting fires is having fewer fires to fight, but also that now the forest owner was in a position to campaign for fewer fires.

In 1909, the five pioneer associations formed the Western Forestry and Conservation Association, to act as a clearing house for fire fighting and forestry methods, to engage in publicity and educational work, and to push the forming of more local associations in Montana, Oregon, and California. This "five state" association, as it is often called, has no individual members, but comprises a league of the locals, each of which contributes according to its acreage. It is officered by leaders in the locals, and has a trustee and vice-president for each of the five states. A forester is employed by the association, which has its office in Portland. The amalgamation of so many leaders in practical fire work under varying conditions, each free to experiment and improve methods without the clog of official red tape, conservatism, or economy, created an unprecedented medium for advancing the science of forest protection. States and Government were quick to recognize this and their forest officials sought to participate. Without hesitation they were admitted as non-contributing members, given equal place in discussion and committees, and the

alliance suddenly became a triple alliance — private, state, and Federal.

When these three hitherto mutually distrustful agencies got together and got acquainted, all suspicions among themselves fell away. Each found that the others were not only sincere but were competent to add practical wisdom on the subjects they all had at heart. And the alliance precluded any danger that the organization's influence might be diverted at times from forest preservation into less publicly beneficial activities of interest to lumbermen. To insure this desirable condition still further, public conservation associations were admitted to full membership and vote.

The remaining step followed logically. The officials of all three agencies have extended their friendly relations to actual coöperation in the field. Joint patrols, joint telephone lines, and joint agreements to share emergencies are welding all three into a system of immense efficiency for public good. And jointly they use association facilities to educate the public to reciprocate.

The result is an organization of such standing that upon a telegraphic appeal from its president, President Taft ordered out the Federal troops to assist the Forest Service during the fires of 1910.

There are sixteen private coöperative fire associations in the Pacific Northwest, extending from northern California to northern Montana. They patrol approximately 20 million acres, containing perhaps 500 billion feet of timber. The number of men employed varies with the hazard of the season, but in 1912 they included about 450 regular patrolmen besides the shifting fire-fighters used when needed. In 1910, one Idaho association alone had 850 of these in the field.

The private expenditure varies correspondingly, being about $200,000 in 1912, one of the wettest — and therefore one of the easiest — years yet experienced; and $700,000 in 1910, the worst year. Even at the minimum of $200,000, this expenditure means a cost of about a cent an acre *for the entire area guarded, although, since by no means all owners contribute, the average minimum* cost to members on their holdings is usually two ce more. The hazard also varies g with forest types, so that thougl association may get off with half a an acre, others may need three, fi eight cents an acre. Assessment always uniform on all members of an patrol; a Weyerhaeuser or railroad ing of 100,000 acres pays the same that a settler does upon his 160-acre Each has equal vote in association a

The efficiency of the plan has be markable. Last year the area of chantable timber burned over was 14,000 acres, or one sixteenth of on cent. of the area protected; and timber actually destroyed beyond was only about 76 million feet, or a s tieth of one per cent. In 1910, the fire year in American history, when r of losses of life and property fille papers for weeks, the private patr extinguished nearly six thousand and kept the entire private loss i three hardest-hit states of Idaho, ington, and Oregon down to less t quarter of one per cent. Once a s deterrent to forest investment or ment, and said to destroy as much w timber as was utilized, fire is now reg as dangerous only when ignored, a is practically avoidable at an expen that is insignificant when compared the values insured.

Such demonstration makes con When the Western Forestry and servation Association, in 1910, orga the first coöperative association in O that state had a fifth of all the Na timber but no state protection and tically no coöperation among ov It now has one of the best forest in the country, a state forester wi appropriation, a chain of coöpe associations from the Columbia Riv the California line, *and a law comp timber owners to patrol.*

The unit in any protective system patrolman, sometimes called firew or forest ranger as in the Federal se He must be himself a captain of m large fires and deal unadvised with great emergencies.

Particularly in the private sys

where his land-owning employer must avert prejudice or resentment, the patrolman must be a diplomat. The settler with a clearing to burn, the logger with an unguarded engine, the camper who may leave his fire burning, must all be cautioned tactfully by a man they like and respect. And, because he has no other administrative duties like those of Federal rangers to divide his attention, and because official restrictions do not limit his devices and methods, he is making the most rapid advance in the evolution of the new American vocation — that of the *trained* forest fireman. His work includes the handling of backfires; the use of dynamite in trenching; the building of expensive telephone lines, trails, and bridges; the judging of the behavior of fire under different conditions and directing the fight accordingly when error may cost tremendous loss of property or life; the purposeful burning of fire traps safely; the transporting, feeding, and directing of large crews in almost inaccessible localities and perhaps in the face of extreme peril; and the collection of evidence against fire law violators.

Congressional appropriations being fixed for the fiscal year, the Forest Service maintains a nearly uniform force regardless of the seasonal hazard. But the association policy is to maintain a "skeleton" patrol in spring, supposed to be adequate for an average season, and to increase it as needed by additional assessments. The territory assigned to a patrolman varies, with accessibility and hazard, from 15,000 to 50,000 acres. Systems of instruction and report have been devised, including daily service reports by patrolmen which also show weather conditions in detail to enable the officers to judge the dryness of the forest. Fires are reported by classes, and their location and effect are recorded.

Progress has been rapid, however, toward facilities to increase and save man power. Trail and telephone building is now one of the chief activities. Lookout stations on commanding peaks are connected by telephone and furnished with protractor dials and maps to enable observers to locate *fires with precision*. Barometric readings are utilized to forecast threatening wind and dryness. Tool and supply depots, cabins, and horse pastures are maintained at strategic points. Arrangements are made in camps and towns for emergency help upon call; and commissary and transportation facilities are standardized and prearranged as far as possible so that large crews can be handled promptly. Motor boats, automobiles, motorcycles, and track speeders are used where practicable, although saddle and pack horses remain standard conveyances in the inaccessible mountains. Collapsible waterbags, portable telephones, chemical extinguishers, special fire fighting tools, and other similar devices are used. No discussion at the last fire conference of the Western Forestry and Conservation Association brought out more interest than that of the possibilities of "wireless" in forest protection, and experiments in its use are proposed for this coming year.

Leadership in this trade of fire-fighting has also evolved its types and, curiously, very different ones. One successful association manager, modestly satisfied with the title of chief warden, is a rich timber owner's son who, rather than make more money or play golf, devotes himself and his automobile to the work and, as daring a fire fighter as he was driver, has built up one of the strongest systems in the West. It was he who first used dynamite instead of men to trench in front of a sweeping fire. Another is a young man who rose from the ranks through the grades of patrolman and inspector and is now responsible for the safeguarding of three million acres. Another was an old river driver and "whitewater man" accustomed to handling men in emergencies, who worked and fed 850 fire fighters in the fearful Cœur d'Alene fires, that cost so many lives, and did not lose a man.

The sixteen associations patrol an area about as great as that of Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island combined, mountainous and inaccessible, and extending as far as from Bangor to Charleston. They protect — besides homes, property, and stream flow — timber worth a billion dollars to

its owners and, if saved for manufacture, many times that to the community. Their example is spreading eastward, for within a year or two similar associations, modeled after the western by-laws, have been formed in Michigan, New England, and Quebec.

The Western Forestry and Conservation Association is an allied organization, whose functions are everything in connection with forest preservation except field work. It organizes new patrols; keeps all its constituents advised of new methods and developments; fosters the use of oil-burning and sparkless engines; helps to frame and to pass forest legislation; studies the operation of such legislation and advises how to make the most of it; watches the courts to learn what criminal sections are weak and what evidence is effective; represents the locals at conventions and elsewhere; improves opportunities to bring private, state, and Federal agencies together; and, above all, carries on a systematic educative campaign directed at lumbermen and the public alike.

It employs every feasible modern publicity device. Schools, newspapers, hotels and depots, churches, women's clubs, telephone directories, store counters, and public officials' desks — these are but some of the mediums through which it reaches the public with bulletins, circulars, gummed stickers, and cartoons dealing with forest ills and their remedies. It distributes match-boxes that caution users that matches cannot think, folding paper cups that develop the growth of a fire with each fold, and check-book mottoes that remind recipients that timber makes payrolls. It publishes a fiction story, called "The Ambitious Tree" — carrying a tree through all its struggles from seed to maturity, like Hans Christian Andersen's "Tin Soldier" — that has been read by 300,000 school children.

The annual forest fire conferences held by the Western Forestry and Conservation Association are attended by experts from throughout the United States and Canada. The topics are restricted to *technical phases of* protective work, *experts in each are chosen* to present them, and discussion is by practical men who are actually handling men and money extensively to solve the problems involved. The topics are such as safeguarding logging operations, slash disposal, railroad coöperation, use of oil fuel, trail and telephone building, wireless possibilities, handling men and supplies, patrol organization, forest legislation, and educational methods. It is notable that these conferences are attended by many prominent railroad officials; indeed, increasing care by railroads, including installation of oil-burning locomotives, clearing of rights of way, and coöperation in patrols, is one of the most gratifying results of this movement.

The five states of Montana, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, and California contain more than half the merchantable timber in the United States. They are now producing about a fifth of the lumber used and the proportion increases yearly. But greater distance from the chief markets will probably postpone exhaustion until after it is complete elsewhere.

Consequently we have two fairly safe premises: that these states will have the largest area of deforested land which by reason of its adaptability should be encouraged to reforest, and that they contain the mature timber which, because it will be the last, will require greatest effort to make it bridge the inevitable shortage before a new supply can be grown.

Saw timber can be grown in this region in from 40 to 75 years. In favorable localities, such as northern Idaho and the coast slopes of California, Oregon, and Washington, the prodigious yield of 40,000 board feet an acre may be attained in 60 years. Though 50 to 60 cubic feet a year is given as the average acre production of the carefully tended German forests, investigations by the Forest Service show that natural and uncared-for Douglas fir in the Cascade foothills is adding 115 cubic feet at only 20 years old and, after reaching the phenomenal accretion of 215 cubic feet at 50 years, is still adding 120 feet at 100 years.

This means that the fully 20 million acres of burned and cut-over land, public and private, on the Pacific Coast, which is not more valuable for other uses, can,

if encouraged, yield 500 billion feet of timber in sixty years and a considerable proportion in less time because much young growth is fairly well along. And there is more than a billion feet of virgin timber still to be used and occupying land which, if restocked as cut, can eventually reach a production sufficient to supply as much lumber as we now consume altogether in the United States.

Here, then, is the Nation's woodlot if we take care of it. The Western Forestry and Conservation Association believes that coöperation, if properly directed, can accomplish all things, and that in this lumbermen, state, Government, and public have each a great responsibility. It practices what it preaches. As its president, Mr. Flewelling, of Spokane, says: "We can't put out fires by talking; it takes money."

GERMANY: A MODEL OR A WARNING?

THE PRICE ITS PEOPLE PAY FOR STATE OWNERSHIP, STATE INSURANCE, AND SOCIALIZED EFFICIENCY—SAFETY AT THE COST OF INITIATIVE AND INDEPENDENCE

BY

SAMUEL P. ORTH

THE great awakening of interest in social problems has brought us to the verge of a revolution in our views of the functions of government. The State is to be "socialized," we are told. So, naturally, the lure of the most socialized State in the world draws the attention of our students and zealots.

Is Germany a model for our democracy? What price is she paying for her well advertised efficiency? How is her paternalism affecting human nature?

The lure is a socialized Germany. The State owns railroads, canals, river transportation, harbors, telegraphs, and telephones. Banks, insurance, pawnshops, are conducted by the State. Municipalities are landlords of vast estates; they are capitalists owning street car lines, gas plants, electric light plants, theatres, markets, warehouses. The cities conduct hospitals for the sick, shelters for the homeless, soup-houses for the hungry, asylums for the weak and unfortunate, nurseries for the babies, homes for the aged, and cemeteries for the dead.

These are not exceptions; they are the rule. Every city engages in these social activities, some more, some less; but all, in their care of their inhabitants, are like a parent rather than like a government.

The key to the German paternal method is the well known system of industrial insurance, providing the workman against accident, old age, sickness, and invalidity. In 1908, there were 13,189,599 people insured against sickness, 23,674,000 against accidents, and 15,226,000 against invalidity and old age, all at an annual outlay of nearly $200,000,000.

When you stop to think that this vast sum is collected in driblets of pennies from the State and from 20 million individuals in weekly assessments; that separate accounts must be kept for every contributor and every beneficiary; that every insured person has a right to a hearing if he feels himself aggrieved, and the right of appeal in many cases if he is dissatisfied with the results of the hearing; then you can form some opinion of the magnitude and intricacy of the machinery that this pension plan alone demands.

Add to this the vast and complex system of State education, a system of training that aims at livelihood. Nothing like the perfection, the drill, and the earnest, unsmiling efficiency of these elementary and trade schools exists anywhere else in the world. In 1907, there were 9,000,000 children in the elementary schools, taught by 150,000 teachers, nearly all masters, as the "school ma'am" does not flourish

in the Kaiser's realm. Every one of these pupils is headed for a bread-and-butter niche in this land of super-orderliness. And more than 300,000 persons are employed by the State in some form of educational work, training the youth into adeptness, in all sorts of schools.

Saxony, for example, has 360 vocational schools; one for every 13,000 of its inhabitants — men, women, and children. These range from schools for training boatmen on the Elbe to the renowned Technical College in Dresden.

Whenever you see the legend, "Made in Germany," you must reflect that the hands that produced the article were trained in Germany, by the State.

The army, as well as the school, brings home to every German family the fact that the State is watchful — and jealous. It demands that two full years of every young man be "socialized"; and the peasant woman and the artisan's wife must contribute her toil to the toll that the vast system of State discipline demands.

Even the Church, that form of organized social effort which is everywhere first to break away from the regimen of the State, remains "established."

So I might continue through almost every activity — the vast system of State railroads, mines, shipyards — and include even art and music.

This socialized Germany is also an industrialized Germany. Everyone knows how cleverly advertised are German goods. But it is always well to remember that this race of traders and manufacturers has somehow, in one generation, come from a race of solid scholars, patient artisans, and frugal peasants. The old Germany has disappeared: the Germany of the spectacles, the shabby coat, and the book; the Germany of Heidelberg and Weimar. A new order has taken its place. As you ride in the great express, from Cologne to Berlin, you never are out of sight of clusters of tall, smoking chimneys. Symbolic of the new Germany are the Deutsche Bank, the trade of Hamburg, and the steel works of Essen.

Your fellow-traveler does not allow you *to forget that* Chemnitz is the stocking *centre of the world,* Nuremburg the toy centre, Essen the armor-plate centre, Leipsic the book centre, Jena the lens centre; that Berlin is growing faster than Chicago (in 1871 it had 800,000; to-day, 4,000,000); that in these forty years, fifty cities have grown up to have more than 100,000 inhabitants each.

In 1871, Imperial Twins were born at Versailles: a German Political Empire and a German Industrial Empire. And it remains a question whether the ancient German Empire of frugality and learning can survive these stalwart youngsters.

Now, how has it been possible to make this transformation? To create out of a slow, plodding, peasant-artisan people an industrialized population, out of a race of scholars a race of manufacturers; to fill a land no larger than one half of Texas with 65,000,000 people who are breeding at the rate of nearly a million a year, and to engage the State in doing all sorts of things for these thriving families? It is the political miracle of the century, and its socialized efficiency is the talk of the hour. How has it been accomplished?

The Kaiser has adapted, line for line and point for point, the pattern of medieval feudalism to the exigencies of modern industrialism. There are, it is true, six centuries of habit back of this attempt; centuries in which Germany was the battle ground of Europe. The Thirty Years War alone was the test of the supreme power of recuperation which determines a nation's place in history. During the centuries of ravaging, the property owners were constantly compelled to seek the protection of the Crown. They never achieved a solidarity of their own, as the English middle class achieved it, and they never succeeded in carrying out a Liberal revolt against the aristocracy.

So, to begin with, the Kaiser has an obedient people, in whom the feudal notion of caste is second nature. As Prof. Herman Levy, of Heidelberg, has said: "It is the place one has in society which is the beginning of the ladder reaching to official position. . . . This state of affairs is feudal, medieval. It is at any rate opposed to the idea that everybody, whatever his place in society, may have equal rights as a citizen."

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e to enlightened leadership," Dr. F.
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ervative party, calls it. He con-
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s for inventing new rules to regulate
details of conduct that have escaped
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of the capital has been put under
restrictions, which determine even
ngth and swish of women's skirts —
are not to be dust sweepers — and
ay you swing your cane or umbrella;
very window must be tightly closed
you "make music" in your room.
e Government has its eager hands
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pulse. From the cradle to the grave,
tate watches the individual, com-
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at are the results? What reactions
oticeable upon frugality, indepen-
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s impossible to answer these ques-
from statistics. A great deal of this
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le witnesses, and to observe.
my journeyings around Germany I
talked with all kinds of people about
fect of this governmental care upon
the workman and upon his work and upon the nation. I found, naturally, every variety of opinion. As a rule, the laboring man thinks that not enough is being done for him; the manufacturer is equally positive that too much is being done; and the scholar, the economist, and the sociologist incline to the view that the State has gone as far as it ought.

The German economists as a rule follow the teachings of Professor Schmoller and Professor Wagner, the veteran economists of the University of Berlin, who were so potent in shaping the first insurance laws and who have ever since been champions of this kind of regulation.

Dr. Jastrow, one of the younger economists of the University of Berlin, who has also had a great deal of practical experience in "social reform" as a member of the Charlottenburg city council, said to me: "I personally believe we have gone as far as we should, if not a trifle too far Because the reaction upon character is apparent. The workingman is showing less self-reliance, is more dependent. My conclusion, however, is not universally believed, and there are many able men who think just the contrary. The evidences upon which I base my views are still microscopic. But I believe I am right, and that we should pause now, before we attempt further paternalism, and determine its effect upon our economic order."

Prof. Werner Sombart, of the School of Commerce, Berlin, who is well known in this country through his writings on American industrialism, said: "It is difficult to say just what the effect of our paternal system is on labor. It is all too recent. But, as a vague opinion, I should say we have gone far enough. On the other hand, we are in grave danger of being overflooded with a class of petty officials who lean on the State. This caste-system and our great materialism make us a cross between China and America."

The German system of factory inspection is very rigid. The inspectors take up the work as a profession; it is a life work, not a political job as with us. They pass through a long preparation both in the university and the factory. Among them are many able men whose judgment, on

the whole, is probably the best that can be found upon this intricate question. They spend their days among the workmen, and are given every opportunity of observation. I talked with a number of these inspectors. Their opinions coincide generally with that of a chief inspector, whom I quote below, and who, for obvious reasons, wishes his name withheld. He is well known for his success in gaining the coöperation of workingmen with the State in bettering industrial conditions.

I asked: "You know thousands of workmen. Is the German workman contented?" He answered: "No, he is not; he is always looking for more."

"Are there any evidences that he is growing less careful, less frugal, and less ambitious?"

"As to carefulness, yes. Since the accident insurance, there has been a large rise in the number of accidents. I have heard one workman who had lost two fingers in a machine say: 'Too bad it was not the whole hand. It would have brought me more insurance.' This, of course, is not the rule. But it shows the tendency toward carelessness that such provisions produce in some men.

"As to frugality, I think the German workman saves as much as he ever did.

"As to ambition, that is a psychological question and is not easily answered. Of course, here in Germany a workman cannot rise very far unless he is a positive genius. But I do say, quite positively, looking back over twenty years of service, that I discern a growing tendency to lean on the State and a lessening desire to stand alone. The independence, not alone of the workman, but of all classes, is showing the effect of our habit of relying on the State."

The elaborate system of industrial pensions is administered by an army of civil service employees. In the higher service are men of exceptional training, who are keen observers of things and men. I quote Mr. Walter Herring, of the Central Office:

"It is difficult to say, exactly, what is the effect of our pension system. It seems that dependence on the State is increasing. *It has even* been noticed that some men *welcome minor accidents*, and that others prolong their illness as much as possible, and physicians find some simulating. But I suppose we must take human nature on the average. Some are shiftless, some are reckless, but most are not. I think the German workman is as ambitious as he ever was. No, he is not satisfied. Who of us is?"

Mr. Kaempf, president of the Chamber of Commerce, and now president of the Reichstag, a fine type of the German merchant of the old school, told me that, so far as he could see, the State's attitude toward the industrial problems had not in the least decreased the efficiency of labor.

This was also the opinion of Mr. Heinrich Maas, a Berlin business man who has studied for years social and industrial questions; and his brother, Mr. Stadt-Rat Maas, whose activities in practical municipal affairs have made him widely known, was emphatic in his statement that the labor laws and pension system had not decreased the efficiency nor the independence of the workman. Mr. Maas guided Mr. Roosevelt through a number of Berlin's municipal enterprises, when the ex-president was returning from Africa. He told me that, as they were inspecting the new and beautiful Municipal Old Peoples' Home, in Buch, a leafy suburb of Berlin, Mr. Roosevelt exclaimed: 'How can there be any Socialists in a country where this is done for the people!"

Some of the larger employers of labor share this favorable opinion. At the office of Schurhardt & Schutte, manufacturers of machinery, whose product is well known in this country, I was introduced to an employee who explained to me the practical details of the pension system, showing me how the firm's accounts are kept, pension stamps licked, etc. He said: "Frankly, I cannot see that these laws have changed the fundamental nature of the workman at all. Our men are just as faithful, frugal, and self-respecting as ever. The workman is not satisfied, of course. Who is? And State aid will go on until the limit of the people's capacity to pay is reached."

The president of one the oldest iron manufacturing concerns in Germany, Mr. C. L. Netter, a man of unusual business

ity, and open-mindedness, whose
r years of experience in active busi-
ıave given him wide opportunity to
ve labor conditions, said:
here is no more work done now than
done formerly. The exertion per
is probably less. But certainly the
is more independent, and is care-
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he German workman lives infinitely
than he did in my boyhood days.
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There is also greater intelligence.
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vith his employer — that, I fear, is
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former minister, whose ability and
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earned him a world-wide reputation
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I withhold his name at his request;
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villing to vote for such laws as a
ıtive. I thus see no end to the exten-
of paternalism, except the limit of the
rance of the people to pay for it."
e shift in the attitude of the Socialist
toward labor laws is significant.
ıg Bismarck's day they bitterly
sed his State insurance. *To-day they* cheerfully offer amendments to the laws to increase their scope and power.

Intent on getting more tangible evidence, I visited the office of the Municipal Charities, where I was shown long columns of figures that indicated a heavy and rapid increase in poverty. I was told that this was due largely to the migration of rural laborers to the city, where they soon find themselves out of work and in need of public aid. I was also told that the city helps to support many old people who also receive old age pensions, the amount of this pension being miserably small.

I talked with scores of workmen, in all parts of the country. As a rule, they deny that State paternalism has had any effect on their attitude toward their work, toward their employer, or toward the State. Some, naturally, would prefer to keep the pittance they pay into the sick benefit fund; others are looking forward to the day when more, much more, will be paid to them; all unite in praising the accident insurance — all which is borne by the employer — and all are agreed in ridiculing the pitifully small sum of the old age pension, which, they say, is scarcely enough for "beer and tobacco."

With slight variations, every industrial city reproduces the same set of facts and the same opinions that I found in Berlin; the ancient art centre of Dresden no less than the new manufacturing city of Chemnitz; Munich, whose people take their time to live easily and happily; and Mannheim, whose inhabitants rush to and fro like the denizens of Chicago.

The conclusion from such testimony — which could be indefinitely multiplied — seems to be that all this intricate and expensive mechanism has, after all, not changed the sum total of human conditions very much; that human nature remains about the same. A recent English writer says that the German insurance system "has solved neither the social nor the political problem — in some ways it has actually aggravated them."

To an outsider, of course, the inner workings of the mind and heart are hidden. But the outer aspect of the German State is perfectly patent. It is mechanism —

there can be no doubt about it — the mechanism of the solar system. It is a land where every member of Society has an ordained orbit and moves in it around the central sun, the State, which radiates a mystic gravitation into every activity — almost every thought — of every man, woman, and child.

Here you see the most varied activities held to the ideals of efficiency through a perfected feudalism. So that all Carl and John need to do is to obey; then they are taught the rudiments of learning and a trade, are insured against the most disturbing episodes of life, assured also of some leisure, considerable amusement, and a decent burial. And that is life!

Of all invented contrivances this German machine is the most amazing, this vast enginery of State with the patents of Hohenzollern, Bismarck, & Co. on every part, that has reduced the life of a great people to complacent routine and merged the rough eccentricities of all into a uniformity of effort and ambition.

It is true that John and Carl can live their ordered lives in routine and contentment, rounding out year after year of plodding toil, paying their dues to the various funds and their taxes to the Government, rearing their families, and entrusting them to the same over-care. But what sort of creatures does it make of John and Carl, and of their children and their childrens' children? That is the important question. My witnesses have not directly answered it. One thing is certain: it makes obedient creatures of them.

There is no exact way, not even a German way, of measuring originality, individual initiative, and independence. But this also is certain: patience, obedience, minute training, do not foster daring and versatility. John and Carl settle down, literally settle down, to an uneventful life, looking forward to no change, taking no risks, seeking no alternatives. Once a butcher, always a butcher. This makes Germany depressing to a restless American who is always willing "to go it alone" and to get "a run for his money."

Some years ago, Mr. Ludwig Max Goldberger wrote a treatise on "The American Peril," in which he gave his countrymen the cheering news that American[s] need not be feared, because "all that the[y] have done, we can imitate." This is an actual policy. I have been told by American manufacturers that they have found their machines so exactly copied in German shops that only the absence of the patent dates and of the name of the makers told them that the machines were not made in the American shop. Already this land of drill and obedience is becoming an empire of conscious imitators.

There are on the German horizon ominous portents. First I should place the moral and psychological effects of luxury. Few nations can stand the sapping suction of plenty. The effect of the profligacy that is everywhere apparent in the New Germany will be particularly swift and fatal in a people who for generations have been frugal and plain. When that sort of a nature surrenders itself to such orgies as the much vaunted Berlin "Nachtleben" (night life), vulgar decadence may be rapidly expected.

On top of this wealth is an imperial debt that has risen from $490,000,000 in 1901 to $1,345,000,000 in 1912; this without reckoning the provincial and municipal debt which is four times larger than the imperial. The burden of taxation in 1912 was $70 per average family.

And on top of this burden of debt sits the militarist, taking, in 1911-12, 622,520 young men out of the fields and factories for the standing army. This year 130,000 more are to be called out; and a new and unheard-of war tax is proposed to this patient and obedient people. One must admire both the audacity of the proposal, the patriotism of the voter, and the magnificent discipline that has wrought such submissiveness.

The red omen is the most conspicuous. Socialism is skillfully combining the revolt against this imperial, personal Government, and the desire of the workman for a greater share of the wealth of the land.

The wage earner, the tradesman, the professional man, are all simmering. No doubt the habit of centuries will be too much for them, and they will never boil over. But 4,250,000 Socialist votes, and the Socialist leaders' spirit of stubborn

ance to the "Kaiser's thumb," make elieve that some change must come, r or later.

en what will happen to this central- bureaucracy; and what will become e system of State aid and municipal ism? For without an efficient ucracy you cannot have an effective nalism; and without centralized nistration you cannot run railroads, res, and pawnshops.

is is the important lesson we may from Germany. It is the one point ly overlooked by the enthusiasts. paint glowing pictures of socialized any, but they fail to look under the e. Germany's system is built upon line; hard, military, iron discipline, grips every baby in its vise and forces man into his place; a benevolent ny, no doubt, but nevertheless a ny; an efficient feudalism, but none ss a feudalism of self-conscious caste ixed tradition.

doubt the time has come when we modify our system of extreme individualism by some system of social coöperation. How far shall we proceed in this path of socialized efficiency? Are we willing to pay the German price? Could we do it even if we wished to? Only a few peoples are fitted for such rigor. I believe that America would be a poor place for a Hohenzollern efficiency test. The carefully trained American barber would quite suddenly take it into his head to be a sailor or a constable, and "all the king's houses and all the king's men" couldn't hold him to his economic predestination.

We cannot make a feudal-ocracy out of a democracy. Maybe we can make a bureaucracy out of a republic.

When all has been said, I cannot escape the conviction that the real significance even of Germany is not in what the State has done for the workman but what the German workman has succeeded in doing for himself, in spite of the State.

This brings us back to the first postulate of Anglo-Saxon individualism: the basis of social coöperation is self-help.

IE TRUTH ABOUT TUBERCULOSIS

TLY WHAT THE SCIENTISTS AND THE PHYSICIANS KNOW ABOUT THE NATURE, E CAUSE, AND THE CURE OF CONSUMPTION — THEIR CONFIDENT HOPE THAT A SPECIFIC TREATMENT FOR ADVANCED CASES WILL BE DISCOVERED

BY

EDGAR ALLEN FORBES

T IS a long journey that the race has traveled from Hippocrates to Koch, and we have been talking and writing about tuberculosis all the way. In the course of the centuries ve learned nearly everything about it t how to cure it. Presently we shall that, also. The children of children living will all be vaccinated against culosis as a matter of routine, and a of tuberculosis will be so rare that al colleges will gladly exhibit it to tudents for their clinical observation. it the present time this is about the t of our knowledge:

(1) We know positively what it is. "Consumption" or "phthisis" is tuberculosis of the lungs; "scrofula" is tuberculosis of the lymphatic glands; "white swelling," "hip-joint disease" and "spinal disease" are synonyms for tuberculosis of the bone and joints; and a score of other old-fashioned diseases are now at once recognized as tuberculosis of some other organ or tissue. And unmistakable diagnosis is the first step in the direction of a cure.

(2) We know the cause — a tiny rod-shaped mite known as the *bacillus tuberculosis*. Koch saw him first — rather saw *it* first, for science says that the bacillus

belongs to the vegetable kingdom. By a lucky chance it has some fat in its make-up and this turns red in a bath of aniline. With a microscope of three hundred diameters you may see it for yourself. It can also be cultivated in a tube like vegetables in a hothouse.

(3) We think that we know the way it gets into the body. It is not inherited, but is breathed in or swallowed, as a rule, after having been coughed out by some former victim. A reliable investigator has made a fairly accurate count of the individual seeds of tuberculosis which one patient expectorated. The patient was in a moderately advanced stage, and sixteen different counts were made during the course of three months. Every twenty-four hours that patient coughed up sputum containing from 1,500,000,000 to 4,300,000,000 tubercle bacilli. When a drop of sputum loaded with the seeds of this dread disease dries, it becomes dust and the bacilli are freed, like seeds from a bursting pod; the first breeze lifts them into the air. The others of us breathe in these bacilli with the dust or gulp them down with our food and drink — and the wonder is that any of us is alive.

(4) We know also what happens to the bacillus after it gets into the body. Most of those which we swallow are never heard from again, but occasionally one gets into the bloodstream and is floated along until it finds a lodging-place anywhere from the meninges of the brain to the skin of the big toe. Those which are breathed in may reach the lungs by a direct route, but bacilli by the thousand are unconsciously disposed of by the wonderful laboratory of the system itself.

Once planted in a congenial soil, the bacillus multiplies like any other plant, but with astonishing rapidity; the protective cells surround each little colony of aliens and eventually encase it, forming a little nodule or tubercle — from which the disease got its name. The invading force is now shut up within the little fort, besieged by an army of white blood-cells. If the walls hold fast, the invaders starve and that is all there is to it. But if the enemy prove the stronger, the walls of the *fortress break down* and the bacilli flow out in a drop of pus. Unless overcome by a rush of the white cells, the process is repeated rapidly, but is unnoticed until the walls of the smallest bronchial tubes are invaded and the pus is coughed up as sputum. The presence of pus in the lungs causes the cough to become persistent and the cough leads to the suspicion and eventually the diagnosis of the disease. If the continuous process be not checked, the patient may die from lack of vitality, or from insufficient lung capacity, or from a hemorrhage due to destruction of the walls of the blood vessels in the lungs.

(5) We know also that many cases are cured; and we have learned that rest, good food, pure air, and a stout heart make these cures possible. And it is obvious that the disease should be recognized early, before the destruction of lung tissue and of blood vessels is progressing faster than the system is able to repair the damage.

(6) We know also how to limit the spread of the infecting bacilli. Register all cases; isolate the advanced cases that are coughing out bacilli by the million every hour; stop public spitting; "swat the fly"; hide the public drinking-cup; let air and sunlight into the tenements; make playgrounds for city children; pasteurize the baby's milk — these are all separate steps in that direction. We have learned the wisdom of all these and more.

(7) There are other things that we know about tuberculosis, and yet others that we guess — but we do not know the name of any medicine that will cure the disease. Of nostrums and serums we have many, from Koch's tuberculin to Friedmann's "turtle serum," but we are still "forward-looking men," expectantly awaiting that which is yet below the horizon. Nature and common sense, assisted by the physician's treatment of this or that distressing symptom, are all that we can now rely upon to effect positive cures "No medicinal agents have any special or peculiar action upon tuberculous processes" is the discouraging way in which one of our most famous physicians begins his discussion of general medical treatment.

But tuberculosis is being cured every day in the week, just the same. Sentence of death no longer follows conviction of

the disease — especially in the
f a "first offense." The words
" and "confidence," which had
tricken out of the consumptive's
ary, have been put back in bold-
ype.
nay even go so far as to say that the
ılosis bacillus is doomed to extinc-
Its ultimate downfall is as certain
that of Adrianople or Scutari when
rong men of the hills shut the
ıls within the walls and cut off their
s. And probably many of us will
rejoice in the day of final triumph.
/hile, we can only keep up the fight
he skirmish line.
cure of tuberculosis of the lungs
s about as much upon the patient's
le and carefulness as upon the dis-
elf. Keep vividly in mind that little
nodules that is springing up in the
of the lungs; if the nodules can be
om breaking down, or if the destruc-
ocess can be arrested after it has be-
e disease makes no great headway;
nay even be cured. If the positive
ısis has been made early, before the
ng power of the lungs has been
ed and before the walls of the
blood vessels have been weakened,
tlook is all the more hopeful, of
These early diagnoses are what
berculosis fighters are looking for
; and their efforts to locate the
in children before even their par-
ıspect it are partly responsible for
/ering death-rate.
effect a cure, the repair processes
nore than keep pace with the in-
destruction; in other words, the
of white blood-cells (the protecting
must be increased by nutrition, for
od has a hard job before it. The
's recovery depends not upon some
ed physician, nor upon some dis-
imate, nor upon some unattainable
but upon his vitality and powers
ıperation.
ieed not go out of his own county
:r to be cured. Some climates are
than others, of course — even when
: trying to recover from the measles
ooping-cough; but climate is not
important as environment or ele-
vation. It is generally accepted that higher altitudes are more favorable to recovery, but it is also readily admitted that some patients recover when both climate and elevation are against them.

Nor is it absolutely necessary that he go to a distant and expensive sanatorium. A man may get well at home, just as a child may get his education at home. The reason that it is advisable for him to go to a sanatorium if he can, is found in its discipline and encouragement; there he will be required to do the things that are best for him and not be allowed to become careless — just as the child in school is required to come up with the lesson day after day, regardless of enthusiasm or lack of it.

For instance, one of the chief necessities in the recovery from tuberculosis is absolute rest. To the patient at home, "rest" means simply stopping work, sitting around the house, doing little odd jobs that temptingly pop up their heads, and lying down only when he feels weary. But in the sanatorium — in some of them, at least — "rest" means to go to bed and stay there. The inactivity is absolute, especially if there be any rise of temperature. The physician in charge does all the worrying about the patient's "lack of exercise," for he knows when to loosen the tether.

Good food — that is, food that is chemically right and that can be assimilated in quantities — goes hand in hand with rest. It is a part of the sanatorium's business to see that the patient gets an appetite, one way or another, and then feeds it with reckless disregard of the expense. The patient looks upon this procedure as the mere satisfying of an appetite; to the doctor who is trying to save him, this shoveling in of nutritious food means just so many more sand-bags piled up against the broken walls of a levee that is flooding the country. The consumptive must eat or he has no chance; and to make him eat is no small part of the sanatorium's work. The average patient in the early stage who yields to the discipline of absolute inactivity and who eats according to the regulations stands a fine chance to get well.

Another thing which is very plentiful about a sanatorium is fresh air, and that also is one of the big elements in recovery. The weakened lung must have preferential treatment, and that is impossible when every breath fills it with impure air; and imperfect aëration of the blood leaves the blood-cells in poor condition to arrest the process of destruction. Sanatorium patients are therefore required to live in the open and generally to sleep in the air — not occasionally, but all the time.

The three biggest elements in the cure of tuberculosis, therefore, can all be had at home in many cases — rest, nutritious food, and abundance of air. But the pity of it is that thousands of those who need them most can have not one of them. Absolute rest means loss of income; nutritious food means higher cost of living fresh air means removal. If the head of the family be the victim, he must simply work on until he can work no longer— at the same time inevitably imperilling his family and all within the circle of his daily life. The sanatorium is beyond the reach of the majority of the afflicted, because most of them are expensive — necessarily so. Only a public institution or one generously endowed can meet the greatest need of any community. In its last analysis, therefore, the cure of individual cases of tuberculosis is a matter of dollars and cents. And this fact alone is sufficient to show that we shall never conquer "the White Plague" until we get some kind of serum that will cure a man without taking him from his work.

At the same time, we must go on doing the best that we can for the incurables and giving the curables their best chance for life, while we wait for that which is to come. Never before, in the history of any disease, has the civilized world responded so nobly as in its duty to the tuberculous sufferers, but this generous activity is the smallest part of the anti-tuberculosis movement of our own time. To prevent the infection of others and by the same sanitary measures to increase the percentage of spontaneous cures — that is the great achievement now in the process of accomplishment.

The number of organizations now at work along this line is surprisingly In the United States alone there ar than one thousand associations whi the disease by campaigns of educat investigations and reports concer prevalence, by actively seeking new tion, and by securing provision fo already stricken. These are scatte over the United States, and a N Association gives impetus to othe

To this great force which has s to educate our people and to force where they cannot be secured ot must be added a yet larger educ body — the thousands of physicia are ex-officio fighters of tuberculo no previous age has the physici himself so earnestly to prevent now he has ceased to be a pill-doc has become a public health serva is like a man sitting on the limb o and chopping it off with an axe; t successful he is in preventing dise smaller his number of patients — goes on with his work of preven though he were being paid a sal it. He, also, as well as his brothe Anti-Tuberculosis Association, is element in the fight.

Detailed history of legislation, state or municipal, is not edifying average reader, but it is good to kn the anti-tuberculosis campaign has with a rapidity that is fast outs the disease itself. Most of the sta have well-equipped sanatoria for cial care of the tuberculous, and t cities are trying to provide for th Twenty-eight states have hosp which provision is made for the tr of the insane, and most of them h similar institutions for their crim defective populations. These centres of control. We have fore, already and quickly reac point where the care of the tuber recognized as a pressing public d

So far as the hospitals, sanat day-camps are concerned there w 111 of these in 1905, with abou beds; to-day it would be cons to place the number at 575, with a dation for nearly 40,000 patien there are in addition about four

saries for the special treatment of ulosis. The figures include reputable e institutions as well as those pro- by state, county, and municipality, is difficult to draw sharp lines of :tion among them. The three states lead are Massachusetts, with about titutions and 30 dispensaries; New with about 90 institutions and ;pensaries; and Pennsylvania, with 30 institutions and 124 dispensaries. of the most notable of these are the f private benevolence, like the Henry s Institute, at Philadelphia, recently ted. It was a fitting tribute at the tion that the University of Pennsyl- conferred an honorary degree not only Mr. Phipps (whose gift of $1,000,000 the institution possible) but also upon dward L. Trudeau, whose work at ac Lake, N. Y., has been so far- ng as to deserve national recognition. ile the frightful mortality is being y lowered by these beneficent institutions and active campaigners, the great hope that lures us on is that of a cure for the disease — a rapid, unfailing cure for the "incurables" as well as for those in the hopeful stages. Again and again it has seemed that this hope had been realized — and the pitiful victims have grasped at it as a drowning man clutches a floating shingle. That hope is still deferred, like the hope of a cure for cancer, but we are coming nearer every day to the final victory over both.

Somewhere patiently works the man — perhaps in some great laboratory of research like the Rockefeller Institute, perhaps in the obscurity of his own private office — who will walk modestly into a meeting of one of the medical associations and read a report which will electrify the world. And when this happens, he will not incorporate himself nor patent his discovery but will place it at the disposal of his fellow-practitioners, in accordance with the principles of his honored profession.

AMUSING AMERICA'S MILLIONS

COLOSSAL INDUSTRY OF SUPPLYING A NATION'S DIVERSION BY MEANS OF IRCUSES, CARNIVALS, FAIRS, THEATRES, MOVING PICTURES, SPORTS, AND "CONEY ISLANDS" — A BUSINESS THAT EMPLOYS IMMENSE SUMS OF MONEY AND HUNDREDS OF THOUSANDS OF PEOPLE — SOME OF THE PICTURESQUE PHASES OF THESE ENTERPRISES

BY

DANA GATLIN

HAS been roughly estimated that 10 per cent. of us, the people of the United States, keep busy and earn our living by amusing the other 90 er cent. This 10 per cent. includes who do the actual work of amusing: in grand opera, light opera, concert; in the "legitimate" theatres, in ille, in burlesque, in small shows; ners in the various departments of umerable circuses, carnivals, street baseball players, football players, ball players, automobile racers, rs, boxers, innumerable exponents of innumerable forms of professional athletics and professional sports.

It includes also the people who promote these amusements; who incorporate companies and manufacture devices to be used in amusing — film companies with armies of employees in the moving picture field, for example; the people in their large office forces; the people who manage and direct theatres, amusement parks, race courses, athletic fields, etc.; stage hands, mechanicians, electricians, and employees in countless other ramifications of the general business of amusement.

It includes those who originate schemes of entertainment, those who finance them, those who manage them, those who execute them, those press-agents, advance men, sign-painters, "spielers," "bankers," etc., who advertise them and draw the attention of the rest of us — the patrons who comprise the other 90 per cent.

This gigantic business has made "household words" of the names of its leaders. Such men as Charles Frohman, in the theatre, Connie Mack in baseball, Maurice Grau in opera, and George C. Tilyou in amusement parks, are as well known as Senators and Presidents.

There is no other public in the world for the amusement purveyor like the American public — because there is no other public in the world that is so prosperous. Scattered throughout the country, hundreds of cities of less than 150,000 inhabitants support from three to six "first-class attractions" a week: vaudeville houses in which the best acts are shown, motion picture theatres that use the newest and best films, amusement parks that are kept up-to-date in every respect; demanding, getting, and paying for the best to be had in every kind of amusement.

Baseball is perhaps the cleanest and most popular American amusement. Its vogue began when Mr. A. G. Spalding and others cleansed it of its rowdyism and its gambling element and put it on a business basis. Millions of dollars are invested in its paraphernalia of parks, uniforms, and equipment, and other millions in gate receipts flow yearly into the pockets of the business men who finance the sport and profit from it.

Mr. Samuel Gumpertz, who has proved how visitors can be drawn to Dreamland, says that, just as there is a "missing link" in the human family, so there is a missing link in the amusement game, and that its name is "novelty". When the balloon was new it was widely advertised and drew widely. But attention was so caught by the difficulty and uncertainty of landing that the merits of the flight were obscured and the public soon lost interest. The same fate has befallen the aeroplane. The difficulty closest at hand made the greatest *impression on the spectator*, and he quickly lost interest in seeing what seemed to be unsuccessful flights. Aviation, in fact, has already come and gone as a spectacle of public interest. It came as a commercial proposition. The men interested in the development of the aeroplane contracted to give public exhibitions to make money with which to carry on experiments to develop the art of flying. The "novelty" drew big crowds, and the aviators commanded big pay. But the spectators picked flaws in the performances; then they saw no improvement, no development, they ceased flocking to exhibitions. Two years ago aviation was the biggest of park attractions; this season the Wright and Curtiss companies and many other of the leading concerns are not going to give any public exhibitions at all. They cannot get prices big enough to make them pay.

Probably the most spectacular novelty in aviation was Calbraith P. Rodgers's transcontinental flight from New York to Pasadena, in 1911. That flight was financed by a great packing company of Chicago to advertise a new soda fountain drink, and it drew enormous crowds of people at every one of the many landing places, presumably repaying Mr. Rodgers's backers for the outlay of probably $100,000 that they made to make it possible. But Mr. Rodgers was killed in an accident a few weeks later — and in any event, his achievement would not again be a "novelty" in the amusement sense of the word. Probably the last great novelty of that sort in aviation will be the flight across the Atlantic Ocean, but even with Lord Northcliffe's prize of $50,000 the winner will probably not make a profit on his feat.

But the circus, though it sometimes seems to be made up of only the "same old things," lives on and on — largely by striving, earnestly and continuously, for something new to show the people. Aaron Turner, called the father of the American circus, introduced the leather rhinoceros as an exhibit. P. T. Barnum and Adam Forepaugh cornered the elephant market; and Mr. Forepaugh originated the act of "the man fired from the cannon." Crocket rode in the open air in a circus parade with a loose lion at his

W. W. Cole successfully tried giants
lloon weddings.
very size and the bewildering
of attractions of circuses are, how-
n themselves an almost unfailing
'. No spectator of a "three-ring
can by any possibility see more than
on of the performance of the dozens
ns, trapeze performers, horseback
bicyclists, acrobats, and other
n the kaleidoscopic maze of motion
lor that make up a modern circus.
eople do not have an opportunity to
a performance more than once a
nd probably very few people see
s once in five years. Hence the
of the performance is renewed by
The menagerie, too, makes a per-
t appeal to the public, and probably
do so largely independent of the
as the steady popularity of the
in nearly every large city tends to
And the crowd itself is a novelty
traction of which never loses its
t to a gregarious people.
ffalo Bill" devised one of the
t novelties of the circus business
he developed the "Wild West
Various elements of frontier life,
sque, thrilling, and dramatic, more
true to reality, were borrowed by
d translated into forms of stage
tion. Cowboys in prairie regalia,
lly from the ranges of the plains,
tilized to show to delighted, wild-
and nerve-tingling spectators the
ent and peril of the "round-up"
"broncho busting." Frontier life
early days, when the Indians were
led peril, was realistically depicted
ie aid of real Indians in war-paint
ckskin.
original Wild West show has been
d for local consumption in the West
where several troupes of cowboys
a circuit of the state and county
tural fairs and give exhibitions in
in breaking horses, and in "throwing
e" before the trotting and saddle
egin. At Pendleton, Ore., an annual
-up" is devoted almost wholly to
ss of performance, and it invaria-
racts visitors from many parts of
ited States.

Striving after "novelties" has been the history of success of circus folk; and it has been the history of the success of carnival folk. The carnival — with its great ramification, the street fair — has of late years run a close second to the old-time circus for popularity. The carnival business is not much more than ten or twelve years old, but, going as it does into towns of all sizes, into all corners of the country, and so composed that it can continually add new attractions, it has become quickly and widely popular. After its first success its popularity fell off for awhile, because unscrupulous men got into the business. They sent faked outfits through the country, generally carrying along gangs of pickpockets and crooks, as in the old "shell game" days of the circus; and the whole scheme fell into disrepute and the outfits were not allowed to come into decent towns. The best carnival managers, however, "stuck it out," trying to convince people that their concerns were free from graft and that they were trying only to furnish amusement. They succeeded, and now the carnivals and street fairs are big items in the list of national amusements. They often work in conjunction with local organizations, dividing the profits with the town fire department, perhaps, or with the Elks, or with the park committee—the carnival men simply bringing their show in, and the local organization doing the advertising. The carnival men are proud of their shows. They say that their success is based on cleanliness and intolerance of "graft." They travel with a string of concessions gathered into one company, including a little of everything from grand opera to acrobats. Some own their own trains; and they do a profitable business from May to October, often running longer seasons down into the warmer parts of the country and into Mexico. And all the towns that they visit welcome them.

Every carnival or street fair has at least one or two big free shows, with good attractions, to draw crowds. This is its particular development of the "ballyhoo". A ballyhoo is anything that is devised and effective to draw crowds — the steam calliope, the serpentine dance in front of

the tent, the high jump an hour before the regular performance, the "spieler" of the various individual shows. The ballyhoo is an important part of every show. The crowd it gathers is the prey of the "spieler", whose stock-in-trade consists of a clear, resonant voice, good humor, and "personality." He must draw his first man to look and listen. He must draw a second, a third, hold them and those that come after, watch them narrowly, size them up, play on their various evident weaknesses, get personal, follow-up smiles and frowns, grasp every little passing incident for possible material, all the time holding each one and holding all. And all the time he himself must display no trace of ill nature, no matter what the provocation. His art is delicately adjusted to the weaknesses of human nature and to the necessities of the box-office that depends upon him to get the crowd inside the door.

The most widely disseminated amusement of the people, to-day, and the amusement that makes the widest appeal and that is available through all the seasons of the year, is the moving picture. The antithesis of all these points is embodied in Grand Opera, which is restricted to a very few large cities and appeals to only two or three well defined groups of patronage — the fashionable or would-be fashionable subscribers, the professional musical class, and the true music lovers, largely of foreign extraction, who throng to the cheap gallery seats. That is, comparatively cheap gallery seats; for nothing about Grand Opera is cheap. Grand Opera is, without a shadow of competition, the most expensive amusement of the people, and in its every department it commands the interpassage of huge sums of money. The singers receive colossal salaries; the productions are staged at great expense; and the boxes and seats are sold for tremendous amounts.

Twenty-five years ago, New York City had a population of a million and a half and only five theatres, the standards for which were set by Shakespeare, the dramatist, and Edwin Booth, the actor. To-day, New York has a population of five millions, and 125 theatres, besides 800 ho devoted to showing moving pict The "legitimate" theatre is now a giga commercial proposition. But the mo picture shows, in far less time, have bec prodigious rivals for their patronage of public. To-day there are 18,000 mo picture theatres operating in the U States, each showing to an averag 500 persons a day.

The people who used to patronize cl melodrama of the Al Woods type did always do it because they liked "blood thunder", but because it was all they c get for ten, twenty, or thirty cents, because it as all that would come to t little, remote towns. Now, for the s price, they can take a trip to India or the workings of the Panama Canal struction in natural colors, watch animal hunts in Africa, help explore Polar regions, go all around the worl they who a few years ago could never h hoped to see things as they actually five hundred miles away from home. what they see is true to reality. In a tion, they can have as much as they of comedies, love stories, plays of all s all acted by actors of recognized capabi

Five or six years ago the moving pic was controlled by what was known as "trust". This organization was Motion Picture Patents Company, was made up of the following lice manufacturers: Biograph Comp Thomas A. Edison, Inc., Essanay Manufacturing Company, Kalem C pany, George Kleine, Lubin Manufac ing Company, G. Melies, Pathe Fr Selig Polyscope Company, Gaumont, the Vitagraph Company.

Complaints soon arose that the "tru was eliminating most of the "exchang to which it would sell, and that the exh tors had to patronize it exclusively to the films with which to stay in busi Two years later, within the ranks of Motion Picture Patents Company, de oped the General Film Company w almost at once absorbed all the lice exchanges in the country except one; all manufacturers, including those sharing in the profits of the "trust," ha deal with exhibitors through its medi

LUNA PARK BY NIGHT

ONE OF THE CONEY ISLAND AMUSEMENT CENTRES THAT HAVE GROWN INTO BEWILDERING VARIETY AND ENORMOUS POPULARITY FROM THE ORIGINAL CONCEPTION OF MR. FRED. THOMPSON

AN AMUSEMENT PARK

A POPULAR PLEASURE-GROUND, IN WHICH THE COMBINATION-OF-CONCESSIONS TYPE OF SHOW BUSINESS IS CARRIED TO A HIGH STATE OF PERFECTION

So, in an effort to get an equal chance at the profits, the independent manufacturers combined into the Motion Picture Distributing and Sales Company. Gradually but surely they built up a trade, some of the individuals conducting their own exchanges, some combining and forming new exchanges, all in opposition to the licensed exchanges of the "trust." Dissensions arose in this new group, however, and now there are two factions of independents, the Mutual Film Corporation and the Universal Film Manufacturing Company. To show how favorably these factions compare in strength with the original "trust", the concerns composing them are enumerated. In the Mutual Film Corporation are the American Film Manufacturing Company, Kaybee Motion Picture Company, Keystone Film Company, Thanhouser Company, Reliance Company, Majestic Motion Picture Company, and the Broncho Motion Picture Company. In the Universal Film Manufacturing Company are the Imp Film Company, Bison Film Company, Powers Film Company, Victor Film Company, Rex Company, Crystal Film Company, Eclair Film Company, Frontier Film Company, Nestor Film Company, Gem Film Company, and the Champion Film Company. These independent manufacturers are able to market with the exhibitors through exchanges controlled by themselves. The three factions form a huge industry, capitalized at millions of dollars.

Some years ago amusement parks were informal picnic grounds and in great popular favor. Then, as more sensational forms of amusement were devised, interest in them declined. "Novelty" after "novelty" built up the open-park business, scenic railways, roller coasters, thrillers every one more daring than the last; stupendous Luna Park and Dreamland at Coney Island, and their imitators the country over. When, with his marvelous imagination, Mr. Fred. Thompson, fresh from working out spectacular effects on a stupendous scale in the huge New

Hippodrome, and soon after starting a
a of outdoor spectacular production
is "Trip to the Moon" at Buffalo,
ved the idea of lumping together
e little, cheap concessions strung
long Coney Island and enclosing
with one admission entrance, he
d his new era along magically.
his enclosure he displayed "novel-
nd spectacles to which only the sky
be the limit, no longer hampered
confines of the Hippodrome.
er men throughout the country
y snatched at the idea. The crowds
d to these places, of course; and
ries and street railways scrambled to
the demand. Fortunes were made,
any have been lost the last season or so. The promoters have complained about the fickle taste of the public; but the answer has been made that the fault was the promoters' own, that they were too greedy. Many amusement parks that were owned by railway companies, urban and suburban and inter-urban, suffered because the railway service was so poor that patrons began to balance it against the pleasures and surprises of the parks. Now, already, ownership is beginning to change; citizens' committees are taking over the parks, improving railroad facilities, and aiming to maintain a solid, organized institution of recreation and amusement which will hold after "novelty" has gone.

Of course, there is an element which must have dance halls, hurdy-gurdies, and

"THE PAY STREAK" AT THE ALASKA-YUKON EXPOSITION

ICAL AMUSEMENT QUARTER OF *A WORLD'S FAIR*, THRONGED WITH THE FAKIRS AND SHOWMEN WHO GAIN *THEIR LIVELIHOOD FROM THE DETERMINATION* OF HOLIDAY-MAKERS TO BE DIVERTED

electric lights by the myriad. To this element these things spell amusement; but it is not the element that will bring enduring profit to park managers. So now, though most parks through the country display such shows as mysterious mechanical devices, riding devices, carousels, and concessionaire attractions, much attention is being paid to athletic fields, swimming pools, bathing beaches, ice ponds in winter, and shooting galleries.

The environs of New York seem to make a class for themselves in regard to amusement parks. For, whereas through the country approximately the same route has been covered in the evolution of the picnic ground into the hysterical spectacle and on into an organized recreation centre, New York appears unable to combine attractions such as draw the following boasted by parks in other communities. In New York it is Coney Island or nothing; parks that have been fitted up at great expense to make an appeal to what is termed "the better class of people" have generally lost money and have never made any. The old Glen Island Park, across the stream from New Rochelle, illustrates this point. Laid out, as one admirer contends, something like the original Garden of Eden, with its pavilions and zoölogical gardens, it made a million dollars for John H. Starin in the old days. Then came the sensational success of Coney Island, and Glen Island Park was outfitted with electric lights, dance halls, and all the up-to-date "novelties." But it failed. It was neither the one thing nor the other. Attempting to draw "the better class of people" to its views of the Sound, the trees, shore dinners, and clam bakes, it found that "the better class of people" preferred, when it did go to amusement parks, to make a sort of "slumming expedition" to Coney Island.

There is a large and ever-increasing number of amusement parks through the country, however, which draw steadily from all classes of people. They are becoming well-organized, and present

A "BIG LEAGUE" GAME OF BASEBALL

BASEBALL HAS BECOME, LARGELY DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS, PROBABLY THE CLEANEST OF ALL PROFESSIONAL SPORTS AND THE MOST POPULAR AMERICAN DIVERSION

A BASEBALL CROWD ON THE "BLEACHERS"

INVESTMENT IN BASEBALL GROUNDS, EQUIPMENT, AND HIGHLY PAID PLAYERS AMOUNTS TO ILLIONS OF DOLLARS AND EARNS A GOOD PROFIT FROM THE PATRONAGE OF THE PUBLIC

THE INSPIRATION OF THE STATE AND COUNTY FAIRS

FROM AN INTEREST THAT BEGAN IN AND THAT WAS FOSTERED BY THE PERFORMANCES OF FINE HORSES ON THE RACETRACKS, THESE FAIRS HAVE DEVELOPED INTO GREAT EXCHANGES OF VALUABLE AGRICULTURAL INFORMATION AND INTO CENTRES OF INNOCENT AMUSEMENT FOR BOTH COUNTRY FOLK AND CITY DWELLERS

extraordinary
tions besides
r "novelties."
v Grove Park,
iladelphia, for
ole — and, by
ay, this is gen-
considered the
t and most im-
nt park in the
ry — presents
rly such free
tions as Theo-
Thomas's or-
a, and Sousa's
nnes's bands.
the patrons
t and listen to
ountry's best
and watch
electric lights
over the lake
ie left — that
you call visi-
who are re-
ed to pay
g "patrons."
v Grove Park
a great money-
, but it pays

A PARACHUTE JUMP

ONE OF THE OLDEST AND MOST POPULAR PERFORMANCES AT COUNTY FAIRS

its way and rests on what appears to be a substantial, permanent foundation.

The amusement park is an American creation. Until very recently it was unknown in Europe, and has developed in this country only within the last twenty years. No one can claim to have invented it, as it has grown up in various styles in various places from various causes — bringing forth free parks, pay parks, street railway parks, beach resorts, excursion resorts, "zoos," concert gardens, and "white cities." From 1904 to 1907 there was a hysteria of park promotion, followed by a

AN OLD-FASHIONED COUNTY FAIR

OUS MIXTURE OF AGRICULTURAL EXHIBITIONS, COMPETITIVE SPORTS, AND TRAVELING SHOWS THAT S ITS POPULARITY AND THAT *IS GROWING* IN SERIOUS WORTH AND IN THE QUALITY OF ITS DIVERSIONS

A CIRCUS FAMILY

THE MOTHER A BAREBACK RIDER AND THE FATHER A CLOWN, TWO OF THE MOST POPULAR TYPES OF PERFORMERS IN PROBABLY THE MOST DISTINCTIVELY AMERICAN AMUSEMENT BUSINESS

panic. Since then the business has been gradually settling down, so that the parks that weathered the storm are the ones that have been accepted by amusement men as embodying the elements that make most for permanence and profit. And this has sounded the knell of the once triumphant White City or Midway — such as Dreamland at Coney Island; for it has appeared that "novelties" alone could not hold. To-day the "novelties" are still present; but just as evident are the things which give title to the name of park — trees, grass, lakes, playgrounds, athletic fields, etc. The exceptions to the rule — certain metropolitan revel-places such as Coney Island, and Revere Beach at Boston — hold because they rely on such huge crowds that they can afford to keep on inventing "novelties" enough to attract the public, regardless of expense.

Euclid Beach, in Cleveland, sells only

OUTSIDE "THE BIG SHOW"

CIRCUS DAY IS A NATIONAL INSTITUTION AND THE CIRCUS BUSINESS IS ONE OF THE MOST HIGHLY ORGANIZED, *AS WELL AS ONE OF THE* VERY PROFITABLE, AMERICAN COMMERCIAL AMUSEMENT INDUSTRIES

nd of ticket,
s good for all
ions — one
it ticket buy-
er soda water,
, popcorn, or
e-swing ride.
tickets are
booths all
he grounds,
said to make
spend more
than any
arrangement
ver accomp-
The Hum-
Brothers, who
Euclid Park,
a few years
lling popcorn
street cart in
nd. They prospered enough to
popcorn concession in Euclid Park
l so well that, when the park ran
financially, they were asked to
ke the management and rehabili-
Their scheme was to own and
personally all the attractions in
rk, a plan which succeeded with
s it did with Thompson and Dundy
ey. The Humphreys have several
s and rides in their park which earn

THE "NIGGER-BABY" SIDESHOW

A POPULAR TARGET AND A SOURCE OF INCOME TO A WHOLE CLASS OF CIRCUS PERFORMERS

them from $30,000 to $50,000 in a season.

County fairs and state fairs are other phases of the amusement business that have become permanent and powerful because they are based on educational and patriotic aims. With the growth in national agricultural knowledge and output has grown the agricultural fair. In 1809 the first agricultural fair was held at Georgetown, D. C. To-day there is, in a dozen fair grounds, an average property valuation of a million dollars. Manufacturers of various kinds of farming devices are glad of the opportunity these fairs give to display and explain their contrivances personally to the farmers of the country, especially of the West. Thus the fairs have become a great commercial medium. President McKinley once said that fairs mark progress; and they unquestionably direct progress. The people of vast

LOADING PART OF THE MENAGERIE ON A TRAIN

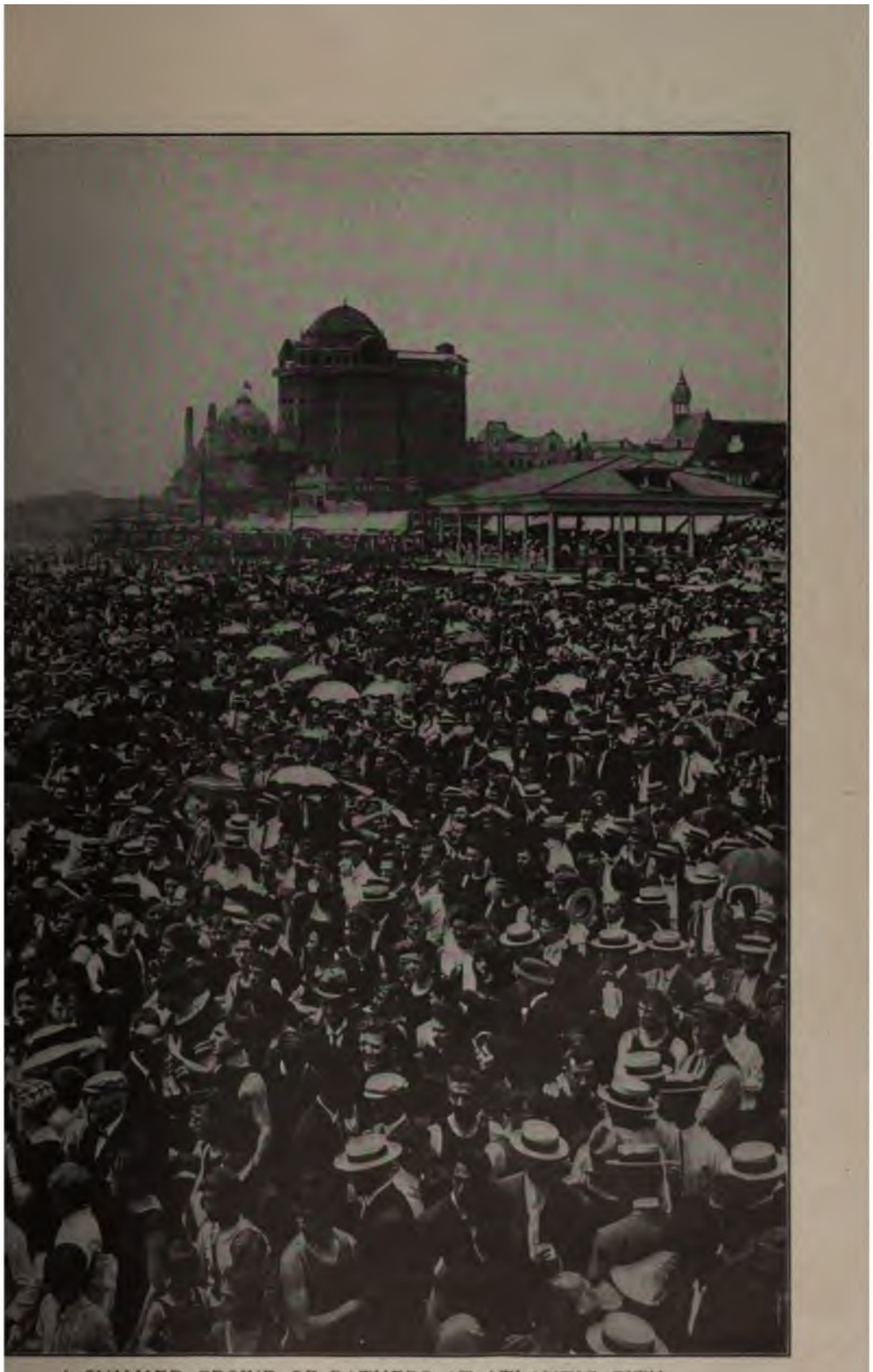
ESTMENT IN ANIMALS ALONE IS ENOUGH TO MAKE THE CIRCUS ONE OF THE MOST CONSIDERABLE *PARTS OF THE* AMUSEMENT BUSINESS

AUDIENCE LEAVING THE METROPOLITAN OPERA HOUSE

IN NEW YORK CITY. GRAND OPERA IS PROBABLY THE MOST COSTLY OF ALL DIVERSIONS IN PROPORTION TO THE NUMBER OF PEOPLE WHO CAN POSSIBLY PATRONIZE IT

SEATS FOR SIX THOUSAND

A PARTIAL VIEW OF THE INTERIOR OF THE HIPPODROME, IN NEW YORK CITY, WHICH EXPLOITS A HIGHLY *SPECIALIZED TYPE* OF SPECTACULAR PLAYS THAT ARE MOUNTED ON A SCALE OF EXTRAORDINARY SIZE



A SUMMER CROWD OF BATHERS AT ATLANTIC CITY

IS A TYPICAL DEVELOPMENT OF A FAVORABLY SITUATED BEACH AND SUMMER RESORT INTO A PROFITABLE PLAYGROUND OF THE PEOPLE

communities get together, see what others are doing, exchange ideas, are approached by agents from the outside world, and lay themselves open to demonstration, and, the whole time, consider that they are enjoying the big pleasure time of their year. It is small wonder that the fair, state or county, is a permanent institution.

Though the various exhibits of stock, poultry, agriculture, machinery, etc., are undoubtedly of first interest at fairs, the people expect and see that they get, on such gala occasions, some entertainment of a different order. Undesirable shows are now rigidly excluded, and even the fat lady and the midget do not find such camping grounds longer profitable. Good animal shows, acrobatic performances, moving pictures, panoramic views, model cities, and clean carnival companies are among the attractions that find general approval as sources of entertainment, and the eternally indispensable merry-go-round and newer model playgrounds for the children always find a welcome.

In connection with fairs, wealthy horse breeders often find a field of interest in horse shows. For many years Whitelaw Reid and Orlando Harriman were exhibitors at the shows held in connection with the fairs of their localities; and many other equally prominent names might be cited. Needless to say, these shows interest many spectators not "in society."

Often fairs are visited, in circuits, by automobile racers. But a fair is not always necessary to attract this daredevil type of entertainer. Any town that can boast an "automobile club," however small and unpretentious, is likely to be visited, any time in season, by automobile racers promising some hair-raising sport. A fair profit is guaranteed to the performers. Automobile races on beaches and on circular tracks are very popular, despite the danger and the frequent casualties. Indeed, it is undoubtedly the imminence and likelihood of disaster that have made this variety of sport so popular. No other sport has drawn spectators from greater distances or in greater multitudes than the big races such as those for the Vanderbilt Cup, on Long Island, and those that are now held at Indianapolis and Savannah.

Altogether, our amusements are a vast and varied industry, employing millions of capital and the time and skill of hundreds of thousands of people. As a business they are worthy of the respect that their size and universal appeal have earned them. On other grounds, we may well be hopeful of them, for with few exceptions they tend to be cleaner, more wholesome, more truly recreative, and more genuinely representative of the natural appetite of a healthy-minded people for innocent and helpful diversion

PART OF A "WILD WEST" SHOW

"HOLDING-UP THE STAGE," ONE OF THE MOST POPULAR SPECTACLES IN THE TYPE OF PERFORMANCE IN WHICH "BUFFALO BILL" (COL. WILLIAM F. CODY) WAS THE PIONEER

CONQUERING THE COST OF LIVING

NEW ENGLAND WAKING UP TO WHAT TRUE COÖPERATION WILL DO FOR BOTH PRODUCERS AND CONSUMERS — THE BASIC IDEA OF DEMOCRACY APPLIED TO EVERYDAY LIFE

BY

HENRY WYSHAM LANIER

BUSINESS called me to Attleboro, Mass. I descended the steps of the railroad station into a town as new to me as was San Salvador to Columbus. There was a half hour for Fate to fill — since I learned I was but twenty-five minutes away from an appointment an hour later. I looked about.

Two men came out of a shop just ahead, which bore the unusual legend, "Co-operative Store." One, in cap and butcher's apron, bent down to chalk up on a side-walk blackboard the alluring quotations for that day of veal and legs of lamb.

On the principle of selecting an undistracted mind, I addressed myself to the other. After fifteen minutes on the side-walk, in a keen March wind, I had the outlines of his life, the more impressive from the artless compression into Genesis-like bareness of years of everyday struggle, success, tragedy, more struggle, more permanent and better success.

SAVING 10 PER CENT.

ONE OF THE TWENTY-SEVEN COÖPERATIVE STORES IN NEW ENGLAND THAT REDUCE THEIR CUSTOMERS' *LIVING COSTS ALTOGETHER* BY $150,000 A YEAR

The son of working people in a small town, with scant schooling, he had at eighteen taken a job in a Fall River restaurant with his parents' adjuration to "be a gentleman and be honest"; after two weeks, the boss handed him the keys: "Herb, you run this place." For five years he ran it, and then his employer

PIONEERS OF THE COÖPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN NEW ENGLAND

LEFT: DR. FRANCIS F. WHITTIER, OF BOSTON, FOUNDER OF THE INTERSTATE COÖPERATIVE UNION, WHO LEFT A DISTINGUISHED CAREER AS A MEDICAL SPECIALIST TO DEVOTE HIS TIME TO THE ALLEVIATION OF HUMAN MISERY THROUGH THE "APPLIED CHRISTIANITY" OF COÖPERATION. RIGHT: DR. JAMES FORD, AUTHOR OF "COÖPERATION IN NEW ENGLAND"

remarked: "Herb, you've made just $15,000 for me" — "but he never offered to give me a red cent of those thousands: that wasn't his style."

Then followed fifteen kaleidoscopic years: cook, motorman, clerk in a large wholesale provision-house, worker in his brother's country butchery, partner, owner of his own business, a prosperous employer, worth some thousands of dollars, suddenly a bankrupt, ruined by the treachery of the one nearest to him, beginning life again alone with a capital of five dollars as grocer's clerk, manager of the store, partner again, selling out to incompetent associates, in charge of another store — ruined by the dissipation of his generous backer, a brief partnership with "a snake," and once more a fresh start.

He was now manager of the coöperative store from which I had seen him emerge, and which, with 160 stockholders and 200 customers, had in a year's operation increased its business from $25 a day to *nearly $150, making* a surplus of $300 *in this hardest first* twelvemonth, and with bright prospects of a substantial dividend the following year.

In spite, or possibly because, of his unfortunate experience with human nature as employer and partner, he was a profound enthusiast on coöperation as the neglected secret in America of eliminating waste, reducing the cost of living, raising the producers' profits, and increasing the practical, everyday application of the brotherhood of the human race, which is the foundation of real democracy and true religion.

Thus, in an idle half hour, I suddenly came upon one of the most vital and significant movements of our time — a movement of the utmost importance to me personally, as farmer and consumer, but of whose existence I had been unaware.

Indeed, had anybody asked me about "Coöperation in New England," I should have replied like the Irishman when he first saw a giraffe, "there ain't no sich animal." I knew of the incredible things being done abroad through this means: the nearly three million members of

tive associations in England (repre- probably twelve million human owning $275,000,000 of goods, uildings, machinery, and invest- doing an annual business of ,000, and making $60,000,000 a year; of the equally amazing nents in Scotland, where Mr. Maxwell, head of the Scottish le Society, conducts a $50,000,000 on a salary of $38 a week, and nany members save enough on ing expenses to pay their rent and of the most impressive "people's palaces" of Belgium, with their free club-rooms, libraries, concerts, theatres, and parks, and the vast expenditures for free medical aid, old-age pensions, maternity subsidies, day nurseries, and sickness and death benefits — all representing the Socialist application of savings made by the members of coöperative societies; of the rapid extension of this idea in Russia, France, Germany, Hungary, Bohemia, Spain, Bulgaria, Servia, India, Japan, South Africa, Argentina, Canada—till to-day 50,000,000

AN OUTPOST OF THE NEW DEMOCRACY OF COMMERCE

ERATIVE STORE AT ATTLEBORO, MASS., WHICH IS HELPING TO TEACH, BY THE OBJECT-LESSON OF PRACTICAL SUCCESS, THE ECONOMIC ADVANTAGES OF A SIMPLIFIED MERCHANDISING SYSTEM

em a balance of cash every year; practical regeneration of hope- and in twenty-two years through perative dairying and the joint of Sir Horace Plunkett's Agri- Organization Society; of the com- ansformation of Denmark in a from a waste of sand dunes and of impoverished farms to the st country of Europe in propor- ts population — through the most perfected system of coöperative nd buying the world has yet seen; consumers all over the globe are represented at the International Coöperative Congress — the most tremendous world association that the human race has yet developed.

I knew, too, that in our own country the huge citrus fruit and apple industry of the Pacific Coast had been made possible by coöperation; that the farmers of Wisconsin and Minnesota were fifty years ahead of the East in joint planting, harvesting, seed-purchasing, and the like; and a number of sporadic efforts in other

A STORE THAT IS OWNED BY ITS CUSTOMERS
WHO ARE MEMBERS OF THE PARK COÖPERATIVE SOCIETY OF JAMAICA PLAIN, MASS.

sections had come to my attention, following the great waves of coöperative enthusiasm started by the "Union Stores'" imitation of Rochdale methods in the '40's and '50's, the "Sovereigns of Industry" movement in the '70's, the immigrants' coöperative buying societies (when the flood tide of immigration began in the '80's), and the ill-fated joint-producing associations urged by the Knights of Labor thirty years ago.

But I have lived among the New England country folk — those independent, upstanding, self-sufficient men, whose first instinct when a man talks coöperation is to suspect that he's a weak brother trying to shift his troubles on to their shoulders; I remember the grim, tight-lipped, chin-whiskered, successful old farmer who remarked, at an agricultural college coöperation rally (after an enthusiastic lecturer had spent himself in

IN BUSINESS TO MAKE MONEY FOR ITS PATRONS
THE COÖPERATIVE STORE AT NORTH DIGHTON, MASS., ONE OF THE STORES THAT REFUND THEIR PROFITS TO THE PEOPLE WHOSE PURCHASES MAKE THEM

ng what his hearers could do by
ning), when asked what he thought
all: "Let 'em blow: they can't
e noan." And I should have said
he apostle of human brotherhood,
hen using the primary argument of
money by working together, had
career marked out when he came
selyte in New England.

mighty is an idea, if it happens to
truth. Dr. James Ford, in his ad-
e book recently issued, "Coöpera-
New England," lists twenty-seven
ative stores, of native Americans or
h emigrants, in cities and towns of
, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and
cticut, with about 13,000 members,
a yearly business of more than
,000, and (unrelated and each work-
one as they are) saving perhaps
00 a year for those who buy through
More than half of these have been
l in the last decade.

Ford found, also, thirty stores in
chusetts and one in Vermont, serv-
,000 or more Swedish, Belgian,
, German, Lithuanian, Finnish,
w, Polish, and Italian workingmen,
aving a small percentage on the
or so dollars of yearly purchases.
eover, largely through the granges,
xists to-day some form of coöpera-
production (like creameries), or
ting, or buying among farmers in
every township of western New
nd, there being, for instance, 125 joint
eries (probably 25 of them of the
democratic type); strong organiza-
or the selling of fruit, cranberries,
es, flowers, and market garden pro-
supply associations for wholesale
of grain and fertilizers in every
the six states; besides many stores
urchasing clubs, chiefly among the
grange members.

ddition to these, there are num-
semi-democratic associations, who
intly from the Harvard Coöpera-
ciety (which has effectively served
mbers for a quarter of a century,
hich last year did a business, in
clothes, furnishings, furniture, sta-
, coal, and wood, of $393,000 —
9 per cent. besides large *contri-*
butions to reserve and building funds) down to the little informal clubs of six to a dozen men at the state colleges, who pool their grocery orders, buy at wholesale rates, and cut off 20 per cent. of the cost.

And even these surprising figures are undoubtedly far from the whole story; for Dr. Ford discovered, in gathering his statistics, that with the single exception of one bulletin in 1907 on "Distributive Coöperation in New England" by the Massachusetts Labor Bureau there has been no official cognizance whatever of this whole movement. In only one of the six states did the state department of agriculture know more than a handful of the co-operative organizations among its farmers!

I venture to predict that the next five years will see some most far-reaching changes and developments in this matter. There are unmistakable signs of an awakening consciousness in our democracy of the potency of this principle of combination, which has in England created the monster coöperative movement (above referred to), whereas we, by neglecting the keystone fact of modern life, have permitted our captains of industry to use it for their own aggrandizement and pile up billions of dollars in the hands of a few trust organizers and directors.

Among these significant facts are:

(1) The creation by the new United States Secretary of Agriculture of a Bureau of Rural Organization, under the direction of Prof. T. N. Carver, of the Harvard Department of Economics, one of the ablest and most constructive social philosophers of our generation. This new bureau is to study and develop coöperative buying and selling among the farmers, following out the recommendation of Mr. Roosevelt's Country Life Commission. The time is about ripe for a federation of all these associations for agricultural buying, management, production, and selling, which would be the first step toward revolutionizing farming in the United States.

(2) Conferences were held at Plymouth, Mass., and Attleboro, Mass., in April by twenty-five delegates from successful coöperative stores — the associations of Plymouth, Greystone, North Dighton, Attleboro, Lynn, and Jamaica Plain, with the

Palmer Coöperative Store of Boston, the Coöperative Association of Bank Men, the Interstate Coöperative Union, and others — that will probably result in the immediate formation of a central wholesale buying society, which, by purchasing for all these societies and other affiliated ones, will greatly increase their savings.

This is the first trembling step here along the path blazed in Great Britain, where since 1902 the English and Scotch wholesale societies have been combined, so that in 1909 this central body acted for nearly 1,500 wholesale societies in purchases aggregating more than $160,000,000. This advance is due largely to the initiative and enthusiasm of Dr. Francis F. Whittier, of Boston, head of the Consumers' Coöperative Company, and founder of the Interstate Coöperative Union, an organization for spreading education on this subject, directed by such men as Dr. Whittier, Dr. James Ford, Mr. Harry C. Bentley, head of the Boston School of Commerce, Mr. John Stone Allen, assistant editor of the *Youth's Companion*, Mr. George H. Brown, of Brown & Nichols's School, and others. Dr. Whittier is a physician, who, after a successful professional career (and as founder of the New England Baptist Hospital), has for nearly three years spent his time in helping the coöperative idea in the Eastern United States. He came to it through the church: his professional work twenty-five years ago among the poor of New York and Boston, and his effort to work out what he calls "applied Christianity." He started a dispensary in Boston in connection with the Ruggles Street Baptist Church; and in casting about for other means of alleviating the human misery which confronted him, he gradually saw that the best way to help these unfortunates was to teach them their power to help themselves — the principle, of course, applying as well to a professional man making $20,000 a year as to a laborer at $2 a day. (An additional impetus was given to his thoughts in this direction, by the way, through an article in the WORLD'S WORK *on the prodigious* success of coöperation *in some of the Western States.)*

About a year ago he started the Consumers' Coöperative Company, at 149 Tremont St., Boston, which, with a membership fee of $5, sells to its members "standard goods at standard prices," from pianos and automobiles to watches, stoves, clothing, nursery stock, and what-not. The member pays full price in advance, and half the discount secured from the manufacturer is at once credited to his account (so that the initial $5 is usually wiped out on the first $25 worth of purchases), there being also a probability of a future dividend from the other half of the discount.

This company is not purely coöperative, in the democratic sense, because the stock is not all held by the members on a one-man-one-vote plan; but its founder plans, when the public is sufficiently educated and the society is strong enough, to turn it into the straight Rochdale type. Meanwhile, he stands as one of the foremost working figures in the New England coöperative movement.

(3) Another tremendous advance was made last year by the Producers and Consumers' Exchange of Maine. As I have said, many of the special New England crops have strong selling organizations: the flower-growers of Eastern Massachusetts have for twenty years coöperated to some extent, and the Boston Coöperative Flower Market is to-day an effective association for joint leasing and purchasing; the Market Gardens of Hartford also purchase jointly and sell in uniform association boxes; the Vermont Maple Sugar Makers' Association has for twenty years tested, graded, packed, and sold its members' product; the Maine Potato Growers' Exchange, started in the summer of 1911, had sold for its 500 members, by January, 1912, 667,000 bushels of potatoes; and last July nine farmers' unions federated at Bangor for the purchase of machinery and fertilizer and the sale of potatoes on a commission of only one cent a bushel; four associations of Maine and Massachusetts fruit-growers were planning, in 1911, a New England Fruit Growers' Union; since 1907, the New England Cranberry Sales Company has been grading and packing, advertising,

lling this product, immeasurably the standards, and doing for its bers a business of $622,000 in ncluding more than half of the crop) at a ridiculously small er most interesting new plan llesex Coöperative Garden anized at Hudson, Mass., h has spent $15,000 in ,000 acres for growing pples, on the basis of , operation, and, ulti- l buying, aiming to to the last pitch of nd to produce an .n.

ll these, in some aspects, ion of the Producers and Con- rs' Exchange, of Brunswick, Me., proved a failure, owing to the ld cause of poor business manage- but the idea of which is practical. coöperative concern cut loose from grange and opened its membership farmers, with the aim of becoming sole middleman between the Maine r and the Boston consumer." Its than 2,000 farmer members could heir produce in carload lots to the o house which the Exchange had in n, fronting on the railroad track, or might send goods in lesser bulk to ciety's store — the Exchange having d to take city consumers into mem- ip and to sell at retail as well as whole- The plan was to secure for the farmer sale prices (much more than he now sell to the consumer at 10 per cent. ce on this (much less than he now , and distribute profits, out of o per cent. above expenses, to both cer and user.

re we have the Big Thing which is l to come as soon as the man who something and the man who uses lize what each pays for the present d, cumbersome, wasteful method of g this something from one to the And here is where the Government's ureau can be of inestimable service. nsider, for an instant, some details present method:

A few months ago a truck farmer d a load of lettuce *five miles into* the Boston market. There was a glut of lettuce just then. Several dealers would make no offer at all. At last one offered him 5 cents a crate (holding 18 heads) which, of course, wouldn't pay for the crate alone. The farmer turned away, declaring he'd haul his lettuce back home and feed it to his hogs. Yet that very day thousands of heads of lettuce were being bought by consumers in that very city for from 5 cents to 8 cents apiece!

(b) Dr. Whittier, of the Consumers' Coöperative Company, purchased recently a lot of fine parsnips for 20 cents a bushel — the wooden box alone being worth about half that. On the same day his household bought parsnips at retail at 5 cents a pound.

(c) A case of personal experience: last fall the apple market went bad, and from our Maine farm we hauled 100 barrels of our crop of beautiful Baldwins to the railroad station and dumped them into a freight car at $1 a barrel — perhaps one tenth of a cent an apple, net. Yet apples no better were retailing in the city five miles away for from 2 to 5 cents apiece.

(d) The Consumers' Company received an order for a set of dining room furniture in high-grade quartered oak — six chairs, sideboard, and china closet. A big manufacturer made a price of $450. It seemed high. The next man quoted $375. The company at once took the order themselves at $275, had the furniture built, duplicating the stock quoted on, to the purchaser's entire satisfaction — and made a profit of $85 on the transaction.

One could fill this magazine with similar absurdities. Of every dollar which you, the consumer, spend, 1, the producer, receive about 35 cents. The 65 cents goes to a series of middlemen, occasionally in excessive profits, but far more frequently in waste between them and in their hands. Investigation into the causes of the high price of meat, for example, has shown clearly that producer nor wholesaler nor retailer was making exorbitant profits: the main trouble was that there were too many retail butcher shops, each doing too small a business, maintaining expensive stores and delivery service, and duplicating one another's delivery expense.

It comes back mainly to that character-

istic American crime of waste, the elimination of which by shrewd individuals has been the major element in founding many of our greatest fortunes — as when Mr. John D. Rockefeller built the Standard Oil pipe lines; or when P. D. Armour, noticing a stream of dirty water from a pipe in one of his slaughter-houses, demanded what was in it and was assured it was "only bristles from the hogs" — that dirty bristle-water being at present the basis of a great industry employing thousands of men.

So the question becomes: How long are the American people (with the object-lesson before them of Great Britain—whom we laugh at as slow and old-fogeyish — as well as almost every other civilized country), how long are we going to continue to whine about the High Cost of Living when we are throwing away millions of dollars every day in preventable wastes, which could be saved by simply applying the principle of democracy to such everyday matters as buying what we use and selling what we produce?

If the consumer can save 20 per cent. and the farmer get 20 per cent. more by getting together, isn't it about time they got together?

There isn't any question nowadays about the coöperative supply store. Any group of a score or more consumers, homogeneous enough to work in unison, can reduce the cost of much of what they use from 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. by applying ordinary good business management and the principles which have been tested for nearly seventy years. That little group of flannel weavers at Rochdale, England, who met in 1844, out of work and in desperate straits, to consider how they might jointly better their condition, by some miracle corrected the practical errors in the plan of Robert Owen, the pioneer of coöperation, and formulated basic principles which have carried hundreds of coöperative stores to success.

These were:

1. Capital should be of their own providing and bear a fixed rate of interest.

2. Only the purest provisions obtainable should be supplied to members.

3. Honest measure should prevail.

4. Market prices should be charged and no credit given or asked.

5. Profits should be divided in proportion to the total amount of purchases made by every member (with deduction for dividend and education as herein noted. See 1 and 8).

6. The principle of "one member, one vote" and the equality of the sexes in membership should obtain.

7. The management should be in the hands of the officers and committee, elected periodically.

8. A definite percentage of profits should be allotted to education.

Every failure recorded, and there have been hundreds, has been due to poor management (which will ruin anything, from a church to a saloon), lack of coöperation, or a departure from these rules.

There is no possibility of failure to-day with the exercise of the same intelligence a man would use in any ordinary business. A society of workingmen, of farmers, of clerks, of professional men, of anything, has this modern discovery at its command, if it will but use it.

And let us face the truth about the most discussed question of our day in this country: that the trust problem is what it is, is our own fault. We have failed in the democratic, in the Christian, ideal, by failing to work together, and leaving to a few forceful individuals the powers of this tremendous force of Combination — the primary recognition of which was man's first step toward civilization, but whose full development in business and industry has come only in our own time.

That is to say, we have permitted a few men to combine us, or deal with us separately, for their profit, instead of combining ourselves for our own profit.

Police legislation may have been needed, may still be needed, to cope with the concentrations of industry and wealth; but the effects of such political and legislative efforts are as nothing compared with the simplest exercise of the collective power of the consumers. You, as an individual, may receive scant notice from a railroad president, a banking magnate, a great manufacturer, a trust manager controlling a necessity of life;

but you or I, as the spokesman of a hundred, or a thousand, or a million users of that gentleman's product, can rectify any abuses in the twinkling of an eye.

Of course, the true aspect of the thing — much larger than these animosities, however justified — is that a man who eliminates waste adds to the world's wealth.

And surely the nation which ought to lead in a movement of the people, by the people, for the people, ought to be that one in which the theory of democracy is being tested on the largest scale the world has yet witnessed.

The "effete monarchies" across the water are a generation ahead of us in true democratic coöperation. They have taken the brunt of the pioneering, shown us the way, left a plain blazed trail to success. What are we waiting for?

"THE ANGEL OF THE ROUNDHEADS"

MISS MAGGIE J. WALZ, WHO HAS COLONIZED HUNDREDS OF HER FINNISH FELLOW-COUNTRYMEN IN THE COPPER COUNTRY OF MICHIGAN AND HAS LED THEM TO ECONOMIC INDEPENDENCE AND INTO AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

BY

G. L. PRICE

THE Copper Country of Michigan is in the upper peninsula that pokes its nose out into chilly Lake Superior away up near Minnesota. It contains not more than 120,000 people, but it boasts the world's greatest copper mines, that have paid in dividends more than $250,000,000.

In the earlier days in the Copper Country the miners were Cornishmen, Irishmen, and Germans. As the mines burrowed deeper and deeper, and there came a call from "back East" for more and more "rock," a scarcity of labor was experienced, and some mining captain established a precedent by importing a carload of Finns. The old-timers called them "roundheads." The name was applied to the first Finn who descended the gangplank from the little steamer which, in former days, plied between L'Anse and Hancock. It referred to his headgear — a flat, round cap of leather and astrakhan, very serviceable at home, but an object which compelled attention in the new America — and it soon became a token of scorn among all the acknowledged lords of the mining camps. The opposition arose not to aversion to the Finns doing the dirty work — trammir.g, timbering, etc. — *for no miner* would stoop to such menial and unexpert toil; but to the fact that the Cousin Jacks and the Irish and the Dutch and the Canucks saw in these stolid, indefatigable toilers, who learned slowly but thoroughly, future competitors in their own field. Therefore to "beat up a roundhead" became legitimate sport which for several years was indulged in with little check.

This was the situation when Maggie Walz — one of the first roundhead girls to "settle" in the Copper Country — arrived in Hancock in the early 'seventies after her long and terrifying journey from Ofvertornea — the little Swede-Finn village on the banks of the river Tornea, where she was born seventeen years earlier. Maggie came alone, and her store of American money was small, her knowledge of the tongue even smaller. She came to a strange, and, for her people, an inhospitable land. Even her sturdy brothers, with their broad chests and mighty expanse of shoulder, had found it difficult to "hang on." Small wonder then that young "Kreeta," as her mother had christened her, stood staring, round-eyed and afraid. "Kreeta" had been away from home before. Like all other subjects of King Oscar, she had been compelled to attend the Swedish public

schools, which in her case were half a Swedish mile, or three and a half American miles distant. Therefore her winters were spent among strangers, even when she was only a child of seven. But they were strangers who spoke her own tongue and served the same king. America, of which glowing tales had come to the land of the midnight sun, was very different.

She was soon to find, too, that there was little for girls to do in her new home. Women clerks were not looked upon with favor in the mining camps: women were in the minority, and only a few vocations were generally open to them. Kreeta, after countless rebuffs, finally persuaded a good woman to take her into her household as a domestic. In the afternoons, after her housework was done, Kreeta sold sewing machines and pianos and organs. Her evenings she divided between night school and a store where she acted as an extra clerk. Kreeta's ways were not the ways of her mistress; she misunderstood orders and made many mistakes, but she finally mastered the American speech and American mannerisms, and after five years of household service she persuaded William Condon, a pioneer merchant of Hancock, to give her a place in his establishment. She soon showed remarkable ability as a saleswoman. Her influence over her countrymen was marvelous, and it was not long before Kreeta became to all intents and purposes the political leader of the Copper Country, so far as her people, who now numbered thousands, were concerned. Politics was not a new game to Kreeta. In Finland equal suffrage had long been established; in America, she studied the laws and the constitution of her state and Nation, and she advised her countrymen wisely. In financial affairs, also, Kreeta became a counselor. She acted as banker and broker, husbanding and investing the funds which her countrymen placed in her hands. And now Kreeta addressed herself to the moral welfare of her people.

The Finns as a race are not addicted to dissipation, but the temptations of easy money and ready access to liquor shops had proved too much for many of them in their newfound independence. Kreeta recognized in this tendency to drunkenness one of the causes of the stigma which had unjustly attached itself to her race, and she set about to counteract it. Her first thought was to strike at the evil through the wives and mothers, and the organization of the first Finnish equal suffrage society in America was the result. This led to the publication of Michigan's first paper devoted to the cause of women's suffrage — the *Naisten-Lehti* (Ladies' Journal), whose editor and proprietor Kreeta became. A Finnish temperance society, the "North Star," was organized, with a large charter membership, and an active campaign was begun against the saloon. In all these activities Kreeta assumed the leadership, and her efforts in this capacity were as effective as they were original.

The progress made, however, was not rapid enough to satisfy Kreeta, and at last she conceived the idea of founding a colony, where her people could be removed from temptation and be given an opportunity to become independent. Thus originated her Drummond Island project, through which she is perhaps best known.

"I found I could not take the saloon from the man, so I took the man from the saloon," said Miss Walz, in speaking of her colonization scheme.

Securing permission from the receiver for the United States land office at Marquette, Miss Walz began eight years ago the colonization of Drummond Island, lying at the head of Lake Michigan. When word of her plans went forth, appeals to be allowed to join in it came from every Finnish settlement in America, from Massachusetts to Montana. More than three hundred applied for homesteads, but Miss Walz accepted only those whom she regarded as best fitted for the hardships of frontier life and as most deserving of assistance. Most of her colonists were men of fifty or older, who had found it impossible with increasing years to support their large families from their earnings in the mines. Only one or two of her pilgrims possessed more than $100 with which to embark for their new home; a majority had not sufficient money to pay the freight upon their few household

s. Some of the homesteaders came, Miss Walz's assistance, from Ohio, e a strike was in progress and scores threatened with starvation. The ey band gathered at Sault Ste. Marie here embarked on a steamer chartered ıeir benefactress. Rude shacks were ed on Drummond Island, and a ground was cleared the first fall. long, northern winter was a trying The settlers longed for the comparaluxuries which they had enjoyed ıeir cities and their mining camps. e was little to eat, and the children for toys and sweetmeats. Silencing grumbling of their elders by the exe of her patient fortitude, Miss Walz ed maple trees and made candies for ittle ones; gathered the sap of spruce that they might have gum; and ed them marbles from clay. Spring at last, and with it new hope and new mination. The success of the colony not long remain in doubt. To-day are four prosperous settlements on nmond Island, with a total popula- of nine hundred. During the last few fourteen of the early homesteaders "proved up" their claims, and s will become landed proprietors in ear future. A majority of the colonıave their citizenship papers and are ng good use of their franchise. Fine and thoroughbred horses are the Comfortable houses with every connce have replaced the original log and every family has its private house, for with the Finns what is larly known as the Finnish bath is a d institution. Drummond Island nds in small fruits and grapes. Its s especially adapted to the sugar beet, ulture of which Miss Walz has encour- A trial field of roots last season uced 25 per cent. more than Michiıad ever before recorded.

ere are three post offices on the d — at Drummond, Maxton, and tan. Five schools are maintained ghout the winter months, and the dance runs as high as sixty. The tan school is probably the only public ution in America, and perhaps in world, which is attended solely by Finnish students engaged in learning the English language. There are four religious congregations and two houses of worship — one a Catholic Church, attended principally by the earlier settlers of the island, and the other used jointly by the Congregationalists, Methodists, and Apostolic Lutherans. Three lumber mills contribute to the industry of the island, and a fine hotel has been erected at Kreetan for the accommodation of travelers. Ten lumber camps were in operation last winter, furnishing employment for everyone who is able to work. In fact, the demand for labor on Drummond Island is so great that it has drawn large colonies from Saginaw and Bay City.

Miss Walz is among the original homesteaders, and, in addition to the 160 acres which she secured from the Government, she has purchased forty acres. She has a beautiful summer residence upon her homestead there. During her residence upon the island, since 1881, she became the godmother of 150 tow-headed, round-eyed Finnish babies, by which it may be surmised that the colony is not destined to die an early death. The colonists are healthy, happy, and contented, realizing the full meaning of independence for the first time in their lives. Boats from De Tour and other places touch daily during the season of navigation, and the people are offered an excellent opportunity of marketing their abundant produce. No intoxicant is sold upon the island.

After seeing her pet scheme well launched, Miss Walz again turned her attention to the Copper Country and its needs. While giving careful attention to her own comfortable fortune, she has found time to participate in the work of twenty-two women's reform organizations; to fill the post of state superintendent over foreign peoples for the Michigan Woman's Christian Temperance Union; and to continue for several years an active contributor to and directing head of the *Naisten-Lehti*, which she kept on its feet at a considerable financial sacrifice, until a suffrage society was ready to take it over. She is thoroughly in sympathy with the demands of her sex for equal

suffrage, and, though she has smashed no windows, she journeyed to London in the summer of 1910 to march with sister suffragettes in the great world's woman suffrage demonstration. The same year she attended, as a delegate from Michigan, the world's conferences of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and the missionary societies, at Glasgow and Edinburgh, respectively. Then she stole away for a few days to sleepy little Ofvertornea to visit her old mother, who little realizes the active part which her Kreeta is playing in the life of the new world.

It is not to be expected that one could accomplish as much as Miss Walz has done during her labors of more than a quarter of a century in the north country without arousing envy and jealousy. Many of her sisters of the more fashionable women's clubs cannot forget that she is a "roundhead." They whisper, too, that Miss Walz has amassed a fortune through her philanthropies. Miss Walz does not deny that she can write her check for six figures; that she owns some of the most valuable business property in Calumet and expects to own more, but she asks that charges against her come from those whom she has striven to help, through practical methods, and not from those who have remained inactive when there was so much to be done. Miss Walz is aggressive; business-like and self-assertive. Yet she is not masculine. She has never married because, she says, she has been too busy — busy from the day when she trudged on skis over the hills of the Portage Lake mining locations selling sewing machines and steamer tickets to the people of Suomi, to the present day, when in her handsome offices in Calumet she receives daily reports from the scores of business enterprises and reform movements and charitable institutions in which she is interested. And, with several thousand Finnish votes at her back, she is a power in politics.

To-day the status of the Finns in northern Michigan has entirely changed. In business, politics, and in the professions, they are more than holding their own. They have been found to be composed of the same stuff from which has been made such satisfactory citizens of the Norsemen, Swedes, Danes, and Germans. The term "roundhead" is no longer applied in scorn, and everywhere the Finns have become valued and welcome members of society. And Maggie Walz has lived to see her dreams come true.

NINE PATRIOTIC INVENTORS

WHO HAVE GIVEN TO THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT, AND THUS TO THE FREE USE OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE, PATENTS UPON INVENTIONS WHICH THEY COULD HAVE SOLD FOR MILLIONS OF DOLLARS

BY

FRANKLIN FISHER

MORE than a score of men now in the Government's service have sacrificed millions that might have been theirs, because they have felt that public duty outweighs all possible private gain. They are the inventors of utilitarian articles that might have been sold to the public or to the Government at handsome prices. Some inventors in the *Government's service* have claimed all possible profits from their inventions — even men in the War Department and in the Navy Department who had been trained by the Government from their early youth at West Point or Annapolis. But most of the men of whom I speak have trained themselves, have studied extensively at home and abroad, have spent much time and money in independent investigation, and have subsequently made inventions while drawing salaries from the

Government. That the inventor was poor, that the thing he had called into being was of very great money value, and that he was in no way bound to turn it over, has seemed to make no difference.

There is the case, for instance, of Prof. Charles E. Munroe, the inventor of smokeless powder. During the Harrison Administration, the United States found itself greatly embarrassed because the powder that it used for military purposes was very much inferior to the powder used by France and Germany. This country was then using a powder that produced so much smoke that it would obscure the view when a battle was on. The trouble was that more than 50 per cent. of the material failed of combustion at the moment of discharge and not only did not perform any service but created inconvenient masses of smoke.

Professor Munroe was at that time chemist to the torpedo corps and was assigned to the naval torpedo station of the War College. He was a thoroughly trained scientist and had served for a decade as professor of chemistry at the Naval Academy. A quarrel was at that time in progress between the War and Navy departments because the War Department had demanded that it be given the torpedo station. The Navy Department protested and, that it might have a basis for holding the station, urged the importance of its work in the development of a smokeless powder. The station really had been doing little toward developing a smokeless powder. Having made a claim, however, it decided upon an attempt to make good upon it. Mr. Benjamin F. Tracy, Secretary of the Navy under Harrison, asked Professor Munroe to make the necessary experiments, and gave him all the time and money he needed.

In two years the powder was evolved. Professor Munroe found that powder makers mixed various substances the chemical union of which, when ignited, converted them into expanding gases which produced the explosion. The union was always so imperfect that much material was left over in the form of smoke. Professor Munroe concluded that such a union would always be incomplete and that there consequently would always be smoke. If he could get a single chemical element that would produce the proper sort of power in changing from the solid to the gaseous form, the ignition would be complete, and no matter left over as smoke.

Not only must this chemical substance flare from the solid to the gaseous form, without leaving any residue, but it must do so in just the right way to throw a bullet farther. Dynamite, for instance, is much stronger than gunpowder, but it explodes so suddenly that it would burst any gun. Gunpowder must ignite with a push. The first few particles that ignite should start a projectile on its way and every remaining particle should give it an additional kick to increase its velocity.

When the proper chemical was at last developed and turned over to the Navy, there was great rejoicing in the military branches of the Government. Here was a single invention that put the United States on a different war basis from a world standpoint. Near the close of President Harrison's administration, in summing up its accomplishments, he declared that his greatest pride was that smokeless powder had been invented while he was President and by a government expert.

Yet this inventor, who placed the Nation on a new war footing, was entirely without reward. He was even forced to spend his own money in protecting his inventions from men who might find it profitable to seize upon them and subsequently levy tribute upon the Government for smokeless powder. Professor Munroe urged the Government to protect these inventions. The Government completely failed to do so. The inventor realized that some manufacturer of powder might at any moment seize upon his methods, patent them, and not only deprive the Nation of all benefit but the inventor of all credit. He therefore completed his patents at his own expense, at a cost of nearly a thousand dollars, and then turned the patents over to the Government. He has never been recompensed for the money spent in thus protecting the Government against its own carelessness.

The value of this invention is almost

beyond computation. All the powder that the United States uses is manufactured under it. If the invention had come into the possession of a manufacturer it would have given him an indefinite monopoly that would have been worth a great many millions of dollars. Yet its inventor did not even continue to hold a position in the government service. Soon after the invention was completed he took a position in George Washington University and has been connected with that institution ever since.

Dr. Marion Dorset, a young scientist of the Department of Agriculture, invented a serum that will go far toward making hogs immune to cholera, a complaint which has caused the death of fifteen million dollars' worth of them every year in the United States alone. Dr. Dorset is a biochemist of the bureau of animal industry, Department of Agriculture. Hog cholera had long baffled scientists. It was supposed to be caused by germs, but the bacteria had never been isolated because they were so minute. It was after years of scientific research that Dr. Dorset finally isolated the specific germ of hog cholera, and having done so was in a position to experiment with various antitoxins and develop one that would counteract it. When the desired serum was developed, its inventor took out patents which would effectively protect it. This was done to prevent some private individual patenting the serum and exploiting it. The world at large was then informed that it had the inventor's permission to make, sell, or use the serum. Thus all manufacturers have been put upon the basis of an open competition in supplying farmers with preventive measures against one of their worst enemies.

Formerly, when hog cholera broke out there was no method of stopping its spread. And it was one of the most deadly of all diseases of swine. To-day, when an epidemic starts, it is necessary only to treat all the hogs surrounding the centre of the epidemic and the disease never gets through this belt of immunity. Inoculation with the serum is practically an *unfailing specific* against infection.

This same young scientist has other inventions to his credit. One of the duties of the bureau of animal industry is to inspect all meats that go into interstate trade. Every packing house in the country that does a business that crosses state lines is subject to this inspection. Every piece of meat that goes out of such a packing house must have the Government's stamp indelibly upon it.

The inspectors formerly used tags. The manufacture of these tags under contract cost the Government $60,000 a year. Dr. Dorset evolved an ink which he did not patent because of the necessity of keeping the method of its manufacture secret. It is made by the government. Stamps for use with this ink were also invented by Dr. Dorset and these are used in placing the government mark upon meat. The invention saved the Government nearly the entire $60,000 a year and gave it a method of marking meat that was superior to the old method.

Yet this young scientist, with these inventions to his credit, is working in a government laboratory in Washington on a salary. He has derived no profit whatever from his inventions.

A very interesting experiment is now being tried by a patriotic inventor, Mr. F. G. Cottrell, who works for the Government in the Bureau of Mines. Mr. Cottrell is a scientist, also, and has been a college professor. He has made an invention which is probably worth millions of dollars. He is more interested in science than in the amassing of wealth, and has consequently donated his invention to the benefit of science rather than attempt to realize upon it personally. His method of doing this has been to turn his patents over to the Smithsonian Institution under an arrangement whereby that institution is to receive all royalties. Thus, instead of giving the invention to the Government, he has given it to a semi-governmental institution which is to realize upon it and use the money so made in furthering science and inventions.

Mr. Cottrell's invention is a condenser, to be attached to the chimneys or smokestacks of industrial plants of all kinds and to take from the smoke or fumes whatever

properties they may have. If manufactures cement, whatever rticles are escaping will be pre- l if this condenser is used. If lenser is fitted to a chimney in a t is fighting the smoke nuisance, mney will cease to smoke. If it to the smokestack of a battleship, p will never be betrayed through If it is attached to a smelter it vent the escape of sulphur fumes oison vegetation and of lead which he death of much livestock about nts. In fact, the application of the s of this invention is so wide and has long been so great for some vice, that scientists believe that hsonian Institution will be greatly by the royalties from its sale.

nvention is based upon the prin- electrical polarization. Sheets or other metal, four or five inches re inserted into a chimney. In positives and negatives are set veen these plates, and the fine of matter that are passing the flue are flung against these eets by the action of electricity spended particles.

ilize Mr. Cottrell's invention, the must be rigged with two flues the magnets are placed. When of plates is laden with the matter has condensed, the second flue is into action and the plates of the shaken down and cleaned.

often this condensation of escaping is profitable. At one small e saving in sulphuric acid that was d amounted to $120 a month. A plant, which had been declared a e because of the dust it scattered e countryside, after applying the er not only ceased to be a nuisance ed the material that had been through its flues. Much to the of its owners this escaping matter nd to be rich in potash and is now ed in the manufacture of fertilizer. lly every manufacturing plant has with its flues and wastes material them, which the application of ention may turn into profitable ucts.

Mr. Logan Waller Page is chief of the government's office of public roads. That office has long studied the composition of various materials that may go into the surfacing of a road or the building of bridges and culverts. In this latter connection it has devoted a great deal of study to the manufacture of concretes and cements. It was in the prosecution of these studies that Mr. Page happened upon the invention of a waterproof cement.

Ordinary cement is more or less porous and not well adapted to construction in which it is important that water should be kept in or kept out. The principle upon which Mr. Page's waterproof cement is based was the mixture of certain amounts of oil with the cement as it was prepared for use. After it had hardened into stone the cement still retains its oily nature and repels water. Water spilled upon a floor made of this cement rolls up into little globules instead of being absorbed and keeping it wet. If a tank is built of ordinary cement more or less water will ooze out of it. If it is built of this water-proof cement, however, it will hold water indefinitely. The advisability of facing such a structure as the Gatun Dam with waterproof cement or of surfacing a bridge with it or of walling a cellar or lining a cistern with it is obvious.

No sooner was this invention announced than Mr. Page received many handsome offers from private sources for his invention. These he declined in accordance with the unwritten law of the Department of Agriculture. The invention is protected from monopoly, but the public is freely given permission to use the cement for whatever purpose it may desire.

Another patriotic inventor of the Department of Agriculture is Mr. J. W. T. Duvel, who is the Government's authority upon grain standardization. It is not generally known, except among grain dealers, that the moisture in wheat or barley or oats may make a difference of from 5 to 75 per cent. in its weight. A given quantity of wheat weighing 20 per cent. more than another given quantity may have in it no more flour-making materials. The two quantities should have an identical value. As weight is the

current measure of grain, it is necessary that there should be some method of determining the amount of moisture in every case. Mr. Duvel invented a moisture tester which has come into general use and the principle of which is applied in instruments used in practically every grain elevator in the United States.

The moisture test is based upon a very simple principle. A small quantity of grain is placed in a receptacle containing an oil which has a boiling point far above that of water. When this oil is heated, the water boils and in a few moments is converted into steam. This steam is caught and reduced again to water, and its weight in proportion to the weight of the sample gives the basis for figuring the amount of moisture in the grain.

This invention has done a great deal toward making it possible to standardize grain. The Government is most anxious to bring about this standardization and thereby place the grain business upon the basis of the exact grain content. Mr. Duvel's invention has done much toward accomplishing this end but it has been of no profit whatever to its inventor. Had he patented it as an individual and manufactured the instruments for this moisture test, he would have been able to get a large price for them.

Many complicated inventions have been made by men in the government service that are useful chiefly in that service: for instance, the rotary printing press for stamps, which is a most remarkable piece of machinery but which is of little value outside the Government's Bureau of Engraving and Printing, because that is the largest postage stamp factory in the United States. The director of the bureau, however, estimates that the development of this machine has been worth a million dollars to the Government.

Into this machine runs a band of white paper which emerges at the other end in the form of postage stamps ready for use. They are so printed as to defy the counterfeiter, they are perforated ready for tearing apart, and they are gummed on the back. The machine even counts the stamps and registers that count. Mr. *Benjamin R. Stickney* is the inventor of this press. He is a veteran employee of the Government's money factory, but has received no remuneration for the development of this complicated and valuable machine.

Another very intricate machine that is used almost exclusively by the Government was developed in the Geodetic Survey. It automatically figures the time and degrees of maximum and minimum of tides at any given place. In computing such a problem as the moment of highest tide at Santa Catalina at some date five years hence, nineteen elements must be taken into consideration. This tide-predicting machine figures all these elements and automatically turns out the correct answer. One man operates this machine, and it works out all the Government's figures of high and low tides for the entire American coast. The machine takes the place of thirty computers that would otherwise be required to do the work. Thus the Government, through this machine, is saving the salaries of twenty-nine men — which, at the rate of $1,200 a year, would amount to an expenditure of $34,800 a year. It has been doing this for thirty years and the saving will probably continue indefinitely. Mr. William Farrell, a genius for figures and mechanical devices, worked out and patented the machine. For this he was never in any way rewarded.

The extraordinary invention of the multiplex telephone, by Major Squier, of the Signal Corps of the United States Army, which demonstrates the possibility of sending many telephone messages over the same wire at the same time, opens a new era in the development of the telephone. Engineers believe that it has great commercial possibilities. Major Squier took the position, however, that he developed the principle upon which his inventions were based while in the Government's service and that the Government was entitled to all their benefits. He therefore turned his patents over to the Government.

Other inventors in the army and the navy have, on principle, turned over inventions to the Government, though this rule is not rigidly adhered to in those de-

ıents. Nevertheless, Brigadier Gen- Villiam Crozier and Brigadier General . Buffington, who are the patentees mounting of the great twelve-inch pearing guns commonly used in the , have never taken any profit from it. ıeavy and so complicated is the anism that is necessary to rear and ɔrt these great guns while they are their ten-mile shots that it costs ɔo to set up a single gun.

ne people contend that it would be ɛ advantage of the Federal Govern- to allow its inventors to profit ɔmely by whatever they develop while in the government service. The argument is that these profits would be a great stimulant to all government employees and would lead them to devise new methods of improving the service. The merit of this claim, however, does not detract from the credit that is due to the men who are contributing their inventions ungrudgingly under the present arrangement. They are giving much and asking nothing. They are doing it for a principle and are therefore set aside into a class of particular distinction. Their scorn of money and fidelity to their work is one of the bright spots in the public service.

THE MARCH OF THE CITIES

PHILADELPHIA'S WOOLEN STOCKING

THE city of Philadelphia has sold three and a half million dollars' worth of bonds to its own citizens without the aid of banker or broker. It sold them direct, ı doing so showed the existence of a ɛ of money among the people of that hat may fairly be compared to the ıs "woolen stocking" of the French. ɛ city needed $3,500,000 but it found he bankers, from whom it was cus- y to borrow, were not disposed to ɔn the security of long term bonds, ıg interest as low as 4 per cent., which w prescribed could not be sold by the ɔr less than par. The bankers said ew, if any, of their investing clients even look at a 4 per cent. security. ess determined mayor would have to get the necessary authority to the interest rate on the bonds, or have given up the attempt until rs and their clients were in a better of mind. Instead, Mayor Blanken- lecided to try his own hand at placing ment securities directly with the ıte consumers. He announced that ɔnds would be on sale at par at the of the city treasurer, and that they be available in denominations to suit as well as large, investors. He knew no argument was needed to convince people of the quality of this investment, and he had sufficient confidence in the civic pride of his fellow citizens to believe that the bonds could all be sold.

At first the small investors were timid, but when they discovered many of the big bankers buying the bonds for themselves, the small investors brought their woolen stocking from its hiding place, and the savings it contained were poured into the coffers of the city. Subscriptions to the bonds amounted to more than $4,000,000.

This was not Philadelphia's first experience with the direct method of dealing with investors but, considering the times, it was the most successful one. Other cities have experimented with this method at times when they have found it possible to get around the law requiring them to offer their bonds at auction and sell them to the highest bidders. But they have found in the results little encouragement for a general adoption of the plan because they have not their own "woolen stockings" to depend upon to furnish money for their public works, and because investors in other communities have been taught that it is best to deal through responsible investment bankers when lending money away from home.

FORWARD TO THE LAND

THE VALUE OF GOOD NEIGHBORS

THERE is an army going forward to the land in the Southwest. It is not as large an army as it was in the boom times of 1909, but it is of better character and purpose. It is estimated that between 175,000 and 200,000 settlers will go into the Southwest this year to make farms.

Eighty-five per cent. of this human stream are American farmers, chiefly from the high priced lands of the Middle West. The other 15 per cent. are foreigners, though most of them have been in America for some time. This is a healthy advance forward to a new land. The character of the settlers and the kind of land they are buying shows that the movement is a fair combination of capital and labor. Mr. C. L. Seagraves, the general colonization agent of the Sante Fé Railroad, describes them in this way:

> We are quite satisfied with the present movement, the superior character of the new farmers much more than offsetting the decrease in their numbers. We would rather see one good farmer buy a few acres than a speculator buy as many sections. Farmland prices have been pretty steady since the hysteria period of 1909-10, and in some places they have advanced. Mixed farm land ranges from $10 to $100 in Kansas and Oklahoma, while irrigated land sells from $75 to $250 an acre. The demand is drifting to irrigated land, where farmers can control the moisture.

In the main these people are well equipped mentally, physically, and financially to succeed in their new homes, to achieve a prosperity for themselves, and to add a new area for the food production of the country. They settle with the help of the railroads, too, for it is to the particular advantage of the roads that this country be settled successfully.

The hundreds of thousands of people who go to farms in the Northwest and the Southwest attest the soundness of this *landward flow.*

Yet there is another side to the question. A little while ago some of the traffic men of one of the Eastern railroads asked the road's agriculturist why farm freight did not increase more.

The agriculturist pointed to advertisements of cheap homeseekers' rates to the Pacific Coast, that were scattered broadcast along the line. The eastern road's profit on every passenger that these advertisements induces to go West is only a few dollars. Its loss from every farmer that leaves its territory is as many hundreds. And it is the best farmers or farmers' sons that go. The slothful ones have not the ambition to cross the continent for a new opportunity. It is the men with "get up and go" in them that do that very thing.

Of course, there are the many thousands who have benefited by the change. But there are many others who succeeded no better in their new environment than they would have succeeded at home, and others still who do less well.

From a national standpoint there is little profit in depopulating one rural community to populate another, for there is practically no rural territory in this country that has too many people in it.

Under certain conditions the man who does the moving betters himself. When he moves from land that he has built up to a high state of productivity and a high price to cheap land that he can in time build up likewise he is making a profitable move. There are many thousands who have done this. Some have moved from Illinois to Iowa and from Iowa to Nebraska, others move from the Eastern seaboard to the Pacific Coast, others merely move from one county or district to another, for in every state there is undeveloped land which will yield large returns to a man who can turn it into high-yielding farms.

But where a man moves from an undeveloped farm in one part of the country to an undeveloped farm in another sec-

has not gained much in land. But
s he has in neighbors, and they are
ortant influences on the profits of a
s the land itself. Neighbors who
he money and the willingness to
it for good roads and good churches,
ave the patience and wisdom to
ogether for their common advance-
– such neighbors add many dollars
value of every acre of land a man
There are two ways of getting such
ors. One is to move to a place
such people live. In that case
wcomer will have to pay for their
ny in increased land values. An-
way is to go to a new district and
ip with it, helping to mold it into
progressive lines. This is the long, hard path to profits that the pioneers have been going these hundred years. The third way is not to move at all but to stir up the old neighborhoods. For every farmer who has a chance to make a profit by moving there are ten who can make more money by stirring up their own communities. For every dollar that the eastern railroads can make hauling farmers West as passengers they can make ten by increasing the value of the land along their lines, by awakening the old communities. The unearned increment of good neighbors will double the value of many a farmer's property, and the quickest way to get a good neighbor is to be one.

HOSPITALS FOR COUNTRY FOLK

R. E. E. MUNGER, of Spencer, Ia., has for several years advocated the establishment of county hospitals that should serve especially
ral population of the state. Dr.
r was one of the men who were of
ielp to President Roosevelt's Coun-
fe Commission, and the report of
ommission greatly aided him in
ig out the purposes he had in mind
hospital plan, by enlisting national
thy for the improvement of rural
His plan was that the state should
law to permit counties to bond
lves for the erection of hospitals
farming districts.
Munger conducted a dignified but
g campaign of education to bring
the passage of such a law. He
l out in the newspapers that whereas
oines had one hospital bed for every
habitants, thirty-seven counties in
containing more than half a million
ants, had no hospital advantages
kind. That two million people of
owa had access to only 799 hospital
or an average of one bed to every
people. He showed also that the
e yearly death rate from the dis-
nd accidents incident to childbirth
ted to nearly one *per cent. of the* female population of the state; and that these diseases and accidents are especially frequent in the country, away from proper medical attention, and that they are largely preventable and curable under hospital care.

Dr. Munger wrote his rural hospital plan into a bill which the legislature of Iowa enacted into law. The first county to take advantage of this new law was Washington County. The people voted $30,000 worth of bonds, a public spirited citizen bought eleven acres of land and donated it for a site, and the board of trustees, after visiting most of the hospitals in the upper Mississippi Valley and after consulting more than a hundred hospital workers, agreed on plans. The building was completed and opened to the public last July. It is fireproof and is equipped with every convenience for surgical, infectious, and maternity cases.

Kansas and Indiana have recently passed laws based upon the law of Iowa, and legislators of other states are studying the plan with an interest that will probably soon show results. In Iowa itself, Jefferson County also has under construction a county hospital under this Act. Dr. Munger's vision and effective enthusiasm have created a new and helpful agency for the betterment of life on the land.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ABOUT FARM LANDS

91.— *Q.* Is the Delaware-Maryland peninsula well adapted to the growing of white potatoes commercially?

A. Only for the raising of early, short-season types. The soils are generally too light and the climate too warm for the production of a main, all-summer crop, which is the more important from the commercial standpoint.

92.— *Q.* I am offered 400 acres of cut-over land in Hernando County, Florida. Can this be used for general farming or grazing? What would be a fair price per acre?

A. We know of no reason for the failure of either of these types of farming on such land, but the census figures for 1910 suggest that they are at present less important than horticulture. There were in 1910 only 554 dairy cows, 49 calves, and 807 head of other cattle in the county. The value of the hay and forage raised was only $7,243, whereas it was $27,437 for fruit and nuts, and $37,207 for vegetables. The cereal crop, valued at $41,280, of which about eight ninths was for corn, suggests, however, the possibilities of such crops.

The average value of farm land is about $22, but whether the acreage you have in mind is better or worse than the average, you can tell only by examining it.

93.— *Q.* Where are the best apple-growing regions of the country?

A. Passing from the West to the East, the sections that have become renowned as apple producing localities are: certain valleys (Hood River, Rogue River, Bitter Root, Boise River, etc.) in Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Montana; sections of Colorado; the Ozark country of Missouri and Arkansas; the lake shore district of Michigan; the uplands of Ohio and West Virginia; a belt of counties lying along Lake Erie; the central part of the state and the Hudson River valley in New York; southwestern Maine; and the foothills of the Appalachian range, from Vermont and New Hampshire, southward into northern Georgia, including the upper altitudes of New Jersey and Delaware.

94.— *Q.* What proportion of the land in Ashley County, Arkansas, is cultivated, and *what are the principal* crops?

A. According to the census of 1910, 39 per cent. of the county was included in its 3,421 farms, of which 1,457 were occupied by whites and 1,964 by non-whites. Forty-five per cent. of the farm land was improved. The chief crops for 1910 were cotton (44,024 acres), corn (29,070 acres), hay and forage (2,579 acres), and fruit, chiefly peaches, plums, and apples.

95.— *Q.* Some time ago I read that the price of farm land in New York was, in a general way, $7 an acre. What is the situation at present?

A. Your source of information must have been rather antiquated, for although there may yet be some land that may be bought for $7, the average for the state in 1910 was $32.13. In every county but twelve the figure ranged between $10 and $50. In four of the exceptions, along the Great Lakes, the development of orchards keeps the average price between $62 and $85. In the eight others, grouped around New York City, average values of farm land, according to the 1910 census, range from $124 on eastern Long Island to $2,591 in Kings County.

96.— *Q.* Can you tell me of any man or firm who can inspect and report on 70 acres of land at the north end of Lake Worth, Florida, or can you tell me about the suitability of the section for orange growing?

A. We know of no one who makes it his business to examine and criticise land, but the State Experiment Station at Gainesville, the Commissioner of Agriculture at Tallahassee and the United States Bureau of Plant Industry (Washington, D. C.) through its Florida demonstration agent may be able to help you. In the section you refer to the mean annual temperature is 73 degrees Fahrenheit, and killing frosts occur, on the average, between November 18th and April 7th. We would consider it therefore a rather dangerous location for citrus fruit growing, although 8,510 orange, 6,840 grape fruit, and 84 lemon trees are reported in the county (Palm Beach) in the census of 1910. Pineapples represent the bulk of the $259,700 worth of fruit raised, but that vegetable growing is a more important industry is indicated by the sum of $530,728, the value of the truck crops grown.

The World's Work

ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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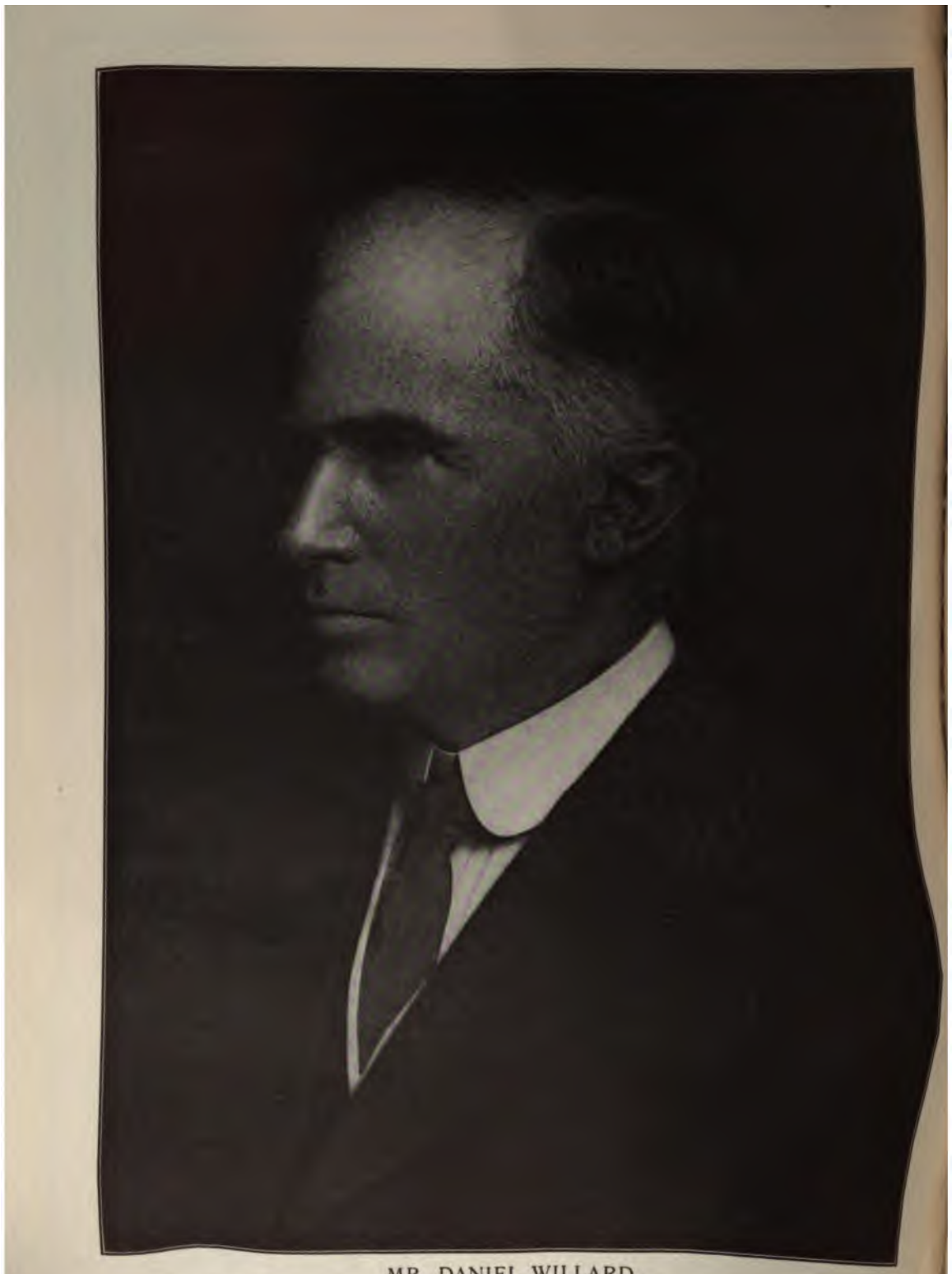

MR. DANIEL WILLARD

PRESIDENT OF THE BALTIMORE & OHIO RAILROAD COMPANY AND ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT FIGURES IN THE NEW EMPIRE OF AMERICAN RAILROADS WHOSE REPRESENTATIVE HE IS IN THE CONTROVERSY OVER THE PROPOSED INCREASES IN WAGES TO TRAINMEN AND IN THE PROPAGANDA FOR PERMISSION TO INCREASE FREIGHT RATES

[See Page 407]

THE
WORLD'S WORK

AUGUST, 1913

VOLUME XXVI NUMBER 4

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

WE ARE living in a most interesting time in American life. We are trying out legally and industrially the great combinations built up in the last ten or fifteen years. We are going to see what greater strides we can make in industry without a protective tariff; we are going to try a new currency plan, the first in fifty years or more; and we are cleaning up politics and business at an amazing rate. Mr. Lamar, with his boasted villainies, and Mr. Lauterbach, with his exaggerations, are products of the past.

These changes in our economic and political life deserve much more attention than they usually get. As a nation we neglect these things. As children we are taught American history as a series of wars, from the conflicts with the Indians and the French, down through the Revolution, the Mexican War, and the Civil War to our conquest of the Spanish islands. The true history of the United States is a succession of economic and political steps, here and there interrupted by war. Our more serious wars have been operations on the body politic. They have come only when some of the regular machinery of progress has broken down — when our politics and industry were sick. And the convalescence from the operation of war has been long and costly.

The old saying, "Happy is the nation whose annals are few," is true when you think of annals, as most of our historians do, as being in a large part the records of wars. But wars do not mark the progress of a people. They mark their worst periods. The real annals of a people are the exploits of the men of inventive genius and constructive minds who make possible the ever-improving standards of life.

If we had not made a tremendous mistake in economics — the mistake of believing slave labor to be efficient — we should not have had the Civil War. If we did not still mistakenly believe that cheap foreign labor is efficient we might escape some future industrial strife.

We are in an era of construction and progress. It is a good time and place in which to work and to live, and whether you look at it merely from the present standpoint or take a broader view, the prospect is cheerful.

Our crops are good, our industries are busy, the tariff and the currency are in a fair way to be improved, and our standards of living are getting better year by year.

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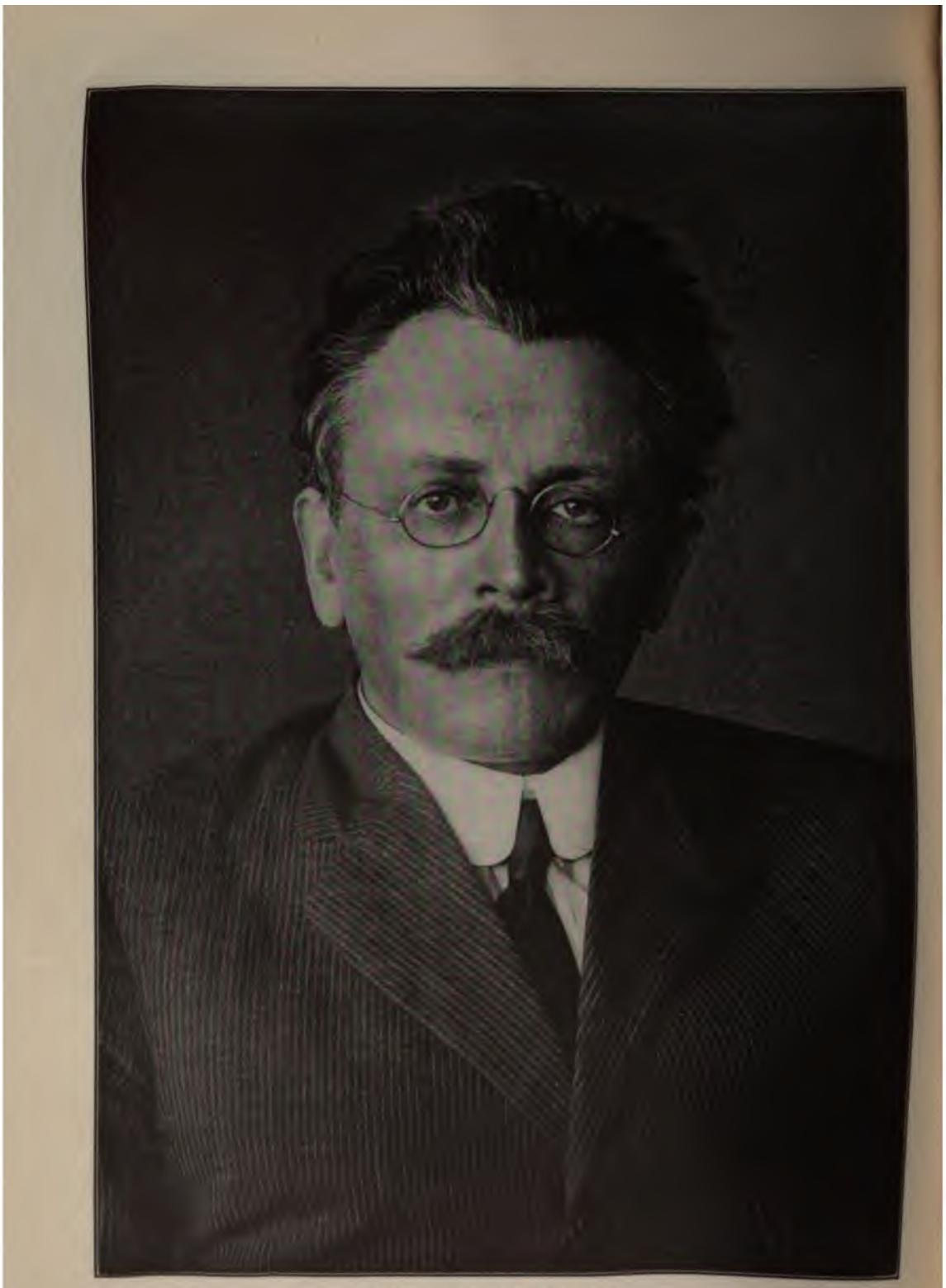
MR. W. L. MACKENZIE KING

THE CANADIAN COMMISSIONER OF LABOR IN THE MINISTRY OF FORMER PREMIER SIR WILFRID LAURIER AND AUTHOR OF THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT UNDER WHICH NEARLY 90 PER CENT. OF THE THREATENED STRIKES IN THE LAST SIX YEARS HAVE BEEN AVERTED

[See Page 438]

DR. LAURO MÜLLER

MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF BRAZIL, WHO RECENTLY VISITED THE UNITED STATES TO RETURN THE CALL OF MR. ELIHU ROOT, THEN SECRETARY OF STATE, TO BRAZIL IN 1906, AND TO SELECT THE SITE FOR THE BRAZILIAN BUILDINGS AT THE PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL *EXPOSITION*



MR. ABRAHAM CAHAN

EDITOR OF THE "JEWISH DAILY FORWARD," OF NEW YORK, ONE OF THE MOST EFFECTIVE LEADERS OF THE IMMIGRANT JEWS IN THEIR STRUGGLE TO BECOME WORTHY CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE BUILDER OF ONE OF THE MOST SUCCESSFUL AMERICAN NEWSPAPERS

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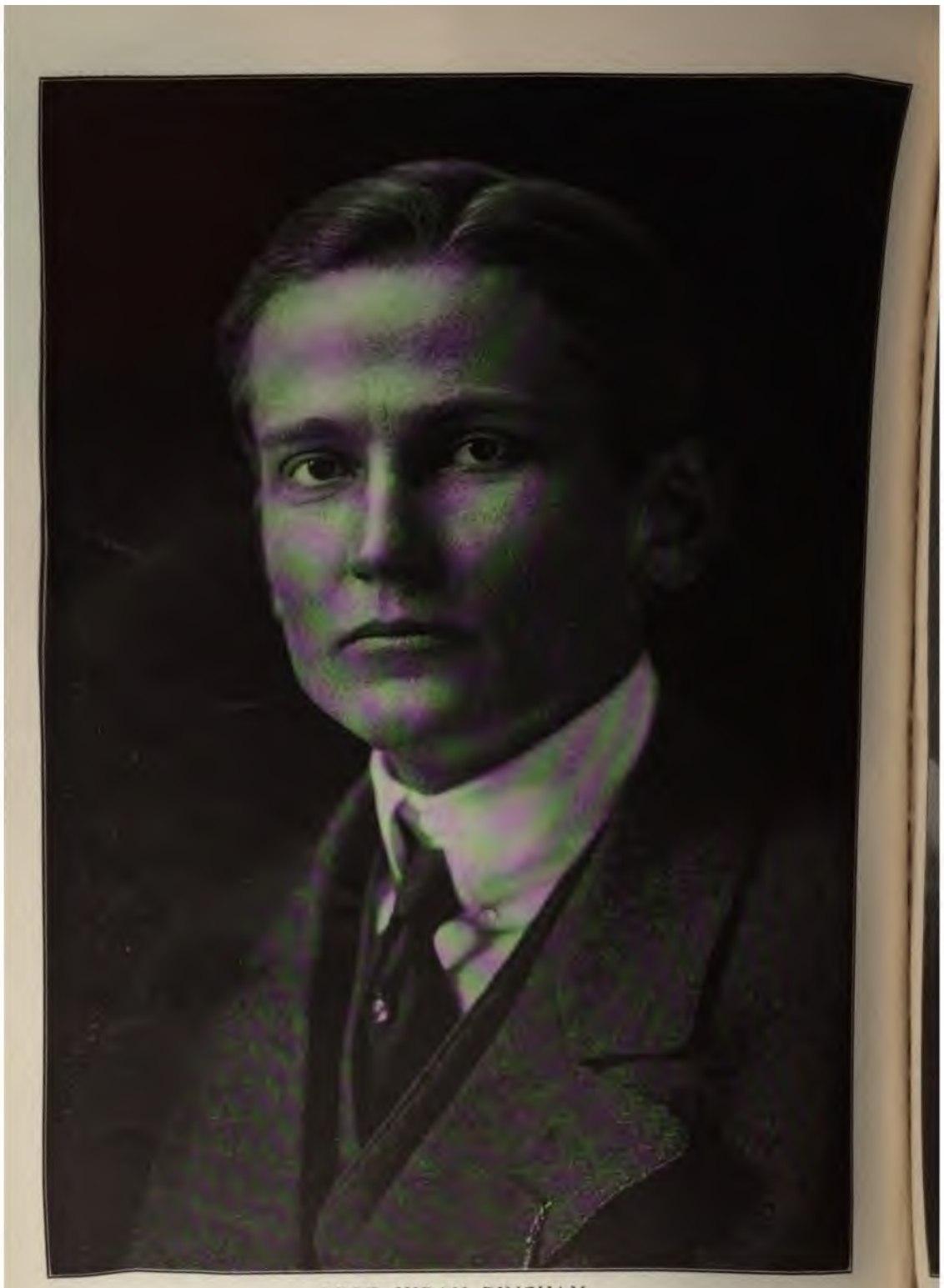
MR. WILLIAM WOODHEAD

NAGER OF "SUNSET" MAGAZINE, WHO WAS CHOSEN PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATED ADVERTISING CLUBS OF AMERICA AT THEIR RECENT CONVENTION IN BALTIMORE

[See "The March of Events"]



PROF. HIRAM BINGHAM

OF YALE UNIVERSITY, WHO DISCOVERED THE RUINS OF AN ANCIENT INCA FORTRESS AND CITY AT MACHU PICCHU, IN PERU, AND WHO LED THE EXPEDITION WHICH RECENTLY COMPLETED THE EXCAVATIONS THAT REVEALED THEIR REMARKABLE ARCHITECTURAL AND HISTORICAL VALUE

[See "The March of Events"]

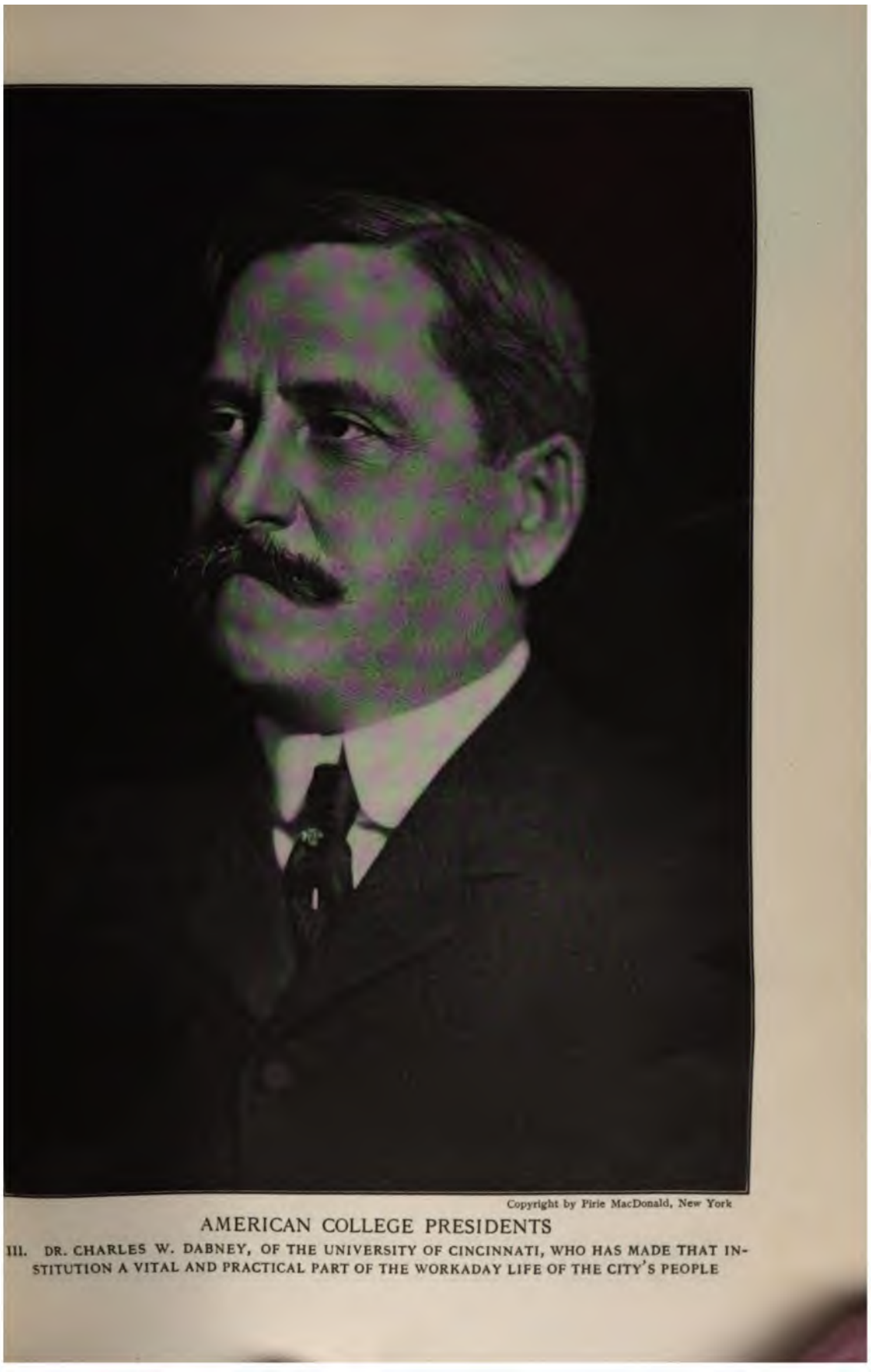
REV. HUDSON STUCK

ARCHDEACON AND EPISCOPAL MISSIONARY FOR ALASKA, WHO ON JUNE 7TH REACHED THE SUMMIT OF MT. McKINLEY, THE FIRST ASCENT OF THE HIGHEST PEAK ON THE NORTH AMERICAN CONTINENT

[See "The March of Events"]

DR. JOHN H. FINLEY

WHO RECENTLY RETIRED FROM THE PRESIDENCY OF THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, AFTER TEN YEARS' DISTINGUISHED SERVICE, TO BECOME COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK



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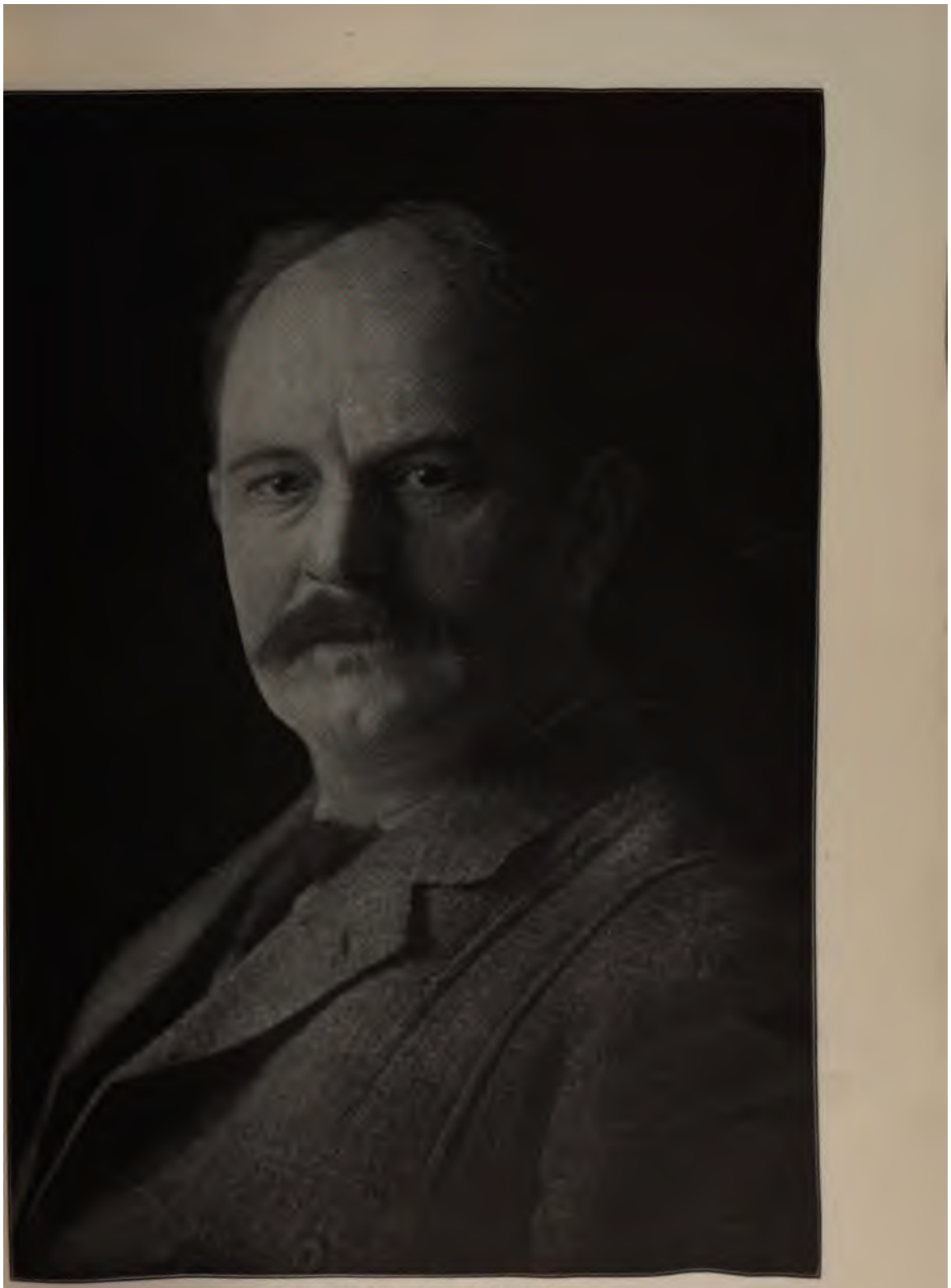
AMERICAN COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

III. DR. CHARLES W. DABNEY, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI, WHO HAS MADE THAT INSTITUTION A VITAL AND PRACTICAL PART OF THE WORKADAY LIFE OF THE CITY'S PEOPLE

MR. B. F. HARRIS

AN OF THE COMMITTEE ON AGRICULTURE AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION OF
OIS BANKERS' ASSOCIATION AND ONE OF THE FOREMOST LEADERS IN THE
DE MOVEMENT TO INCREASE THE EFFICIENCY OF AMERICAN FARMERS [See Page 431]



MR. FRANK M. CHAPMAN

OF THE MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY IN NEW YORK, OUR FOREMOST AUTHORITY ON BIRD LIFE, WHO RECENTLY RETURNED FROM A SUCCESSFUL JOURNEY OF ORNITHOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION IN SOUTH AMERICA

MISS LILLIAN D. WALD

WHO RECENTLY COMPLETED HER TWENTIETH YEAR AS HEAD WORKER OF THE HENRY STREET SETTLEMENT IN THE EAST SIDE OF NEW YORK CITY, WHERE SHE HAS ACHIEVED AN INTERNATIONAL REPUTATION AS A HELPFUL AND PRACTICAL SOCIOLOGIST

THE GROWTH OF AMERICAN CITIES

UPPER PICTURE: VIEW OF MAIN STREET, DALLAS, TEX., IN 1887. LOWER PICTURE: THE SAME VIEW IN 1913. THE POPULATION OF DALLAS INCREASED FROM 42,638 IN 1900 TO 92,104 IN 1910, A GAIN OF 116 PER CENT.

FOR AN ELASTIC CURRENCY

THE chief advantage of President Wilson's reform in the currency is that we are going to have it. For the last fifteen or twenty years we have known that our currency system was inadequate, but nothing was done. The bill that passes will not be perfect but it will in all probability improve the present status. For that and the promptness and vigor with which this part of the public business is being transacted we may be grateful.

Our currency at present is of two kinds: that which is issued by the Government, consisting of metallic money, gold and silver, United States notes, and Treasury notes; and that issued by the national banks in the form of notes secured by United States bonds. Whether the country is doing a big business or a little business, the amount of currency in circulation stays about the same. Of course, it ought to vary with the country's commercial transactions.

This the new bill proposes to effect by allowing the issue of bank notes secured by commercial paper, so that when commerce is large and its paper plentiful the currency will automatically increase and when it is scarce the currency will contract. When a man puts a note in his bank, the bank forwards it to the Federal reserve bank which can issue notes against it. When the man's note is paid, the currency secured by it is withdrawn from circulation by the reserve bank.

This first fundamental change in our currency system is generally approved. Most other countries have a central bank which has the power to fix the rate of discount for which a bank will accept commercial paper for collection. This is a kind of ally to an elastic currency in times of emergency. There has been no institution in the United States to do this. In panic times we have to count upon some makeshift measure, like the Aldrich-Vreeland law that was enacted after the 1907 panic to provide for the issue of "emergency currency," if the country's financial machinery should happen to break down again. In 1914 this law expi[illegible]

The new currency bill provides a Federal Reserve Board and twelve Federal reserve banks. These banks have the power to fix the discount rate each in its own district subject to the approval of the Federal Reserve Board.

That there should be some wise and responsible agency to have this rate-fixing power is generally accepted.

The two fundamental objects of the bill are undoubtedly sound. How good is the machinery created to attain these objects will not really be known until it has been in actual operation. It has provoked all manner of criticism, some loose and unscientific, some from men whose opinions deserve most serious consideration.

At the head of the national banking system will be the Federal Reserve Board, consisting of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of Agriculture, the Comptroller of the Currency, and four members chosen by the President with the approval of the Senate.

Under the control of this Board will be twelve (or more) national reserve banks, each one serving a certain district. Besides a general supervision of the administration of the reserve banks the Board will have the power to order the reserve banks to rediscount one another's paper; to suspend all reserve requirements for thirty days and to renew the suspension for periods of fifteen days each; and to regulate the issue and retirement of treasury notes — the new elastic currency.

These notes shall be obligations of the United States. They shall be legal tender, and redeemable in gold. When a Federal reserve bank issues these treasury notes it must have commercial paper of equal amount as security and must besides keep a gold reserve of 33⅓ per cent. of the amount of currency issued. As the commercial paper coming in to a Federal reserve bank varies, so will vary its issues of treasury notes.

It is obvious that this currency will ultimately drive out of circulation the present national bank notes, which are secured by government bonds. Therefore the law provides that as the present bank notes are retired, banks may turn in the 2 per cent. bonds of the United States, which they have hitherto use[illegible]

security for notes, and receive 3 per cent. bonds which do not carry that privilege and which will run for twenty years.

The Federal reserve banks will get their capital from the national banks of their district, which are to invest 10 per cent. of their own capital in the reserve bank and to be liable for another 10 per cent. on call. In addition, every national bank will be required to deposit without interest 5 per cent. of its own demand deposit.

The reserve banks financed in this manner are to deal in gold and bullion, at home and abroad; to invest in government (of this and other countries) and state bonds; to deal in foreign commercial paper and to open and maintain bank accounts abroad; and to establish, every week, a minimum rate of discount. This is the second fundamental change that the new law brings about.

There are other important provisions of the law drafted in an effort to increase the farmer's facilities for borrowing money on his land and to establish foreign branches to help our foreign trade. These provisions, like the rest of the bill, will be proved by service. If successful they will be of tremendous importance to the whole Nation, because improved rural credit could add wonderfully to the productiveness of our farms, and American branch banks abroad could be of inestimable advantage to our growing foreign trade.

It is, of course, inevitable that in making a new banking and currency system a great deal of controversy is stirred up. There are many criticisms of minor provisions which may be changed in the passage of the bill. But besides this there is a vigorous criticism of the machinery for carrying out the two fundamental parts of the bill, and this criticism is particularly from bankers. They complain that it is folly to have the Federal Reserve Board composed of seven members only one of whom must be a banker. They who are experts are, inferentially at least, almost excluded from the Board which controls the currency of the country. The criticism is natural. On the other hand the public, as the discussion of the Aldrich bill showed, have not complete confidence in a central organization dominated by bankers. It would have in a measure the same feeling toward a group of bankers on the Federal Reserve Board as it would have toward half a dozen railroad presidents as members of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The bankers, and many other people, too, fear the power of the Federal Reserve Board in the hands of politicians. Another set of people fear such a power in the hands of the bankers.

The solution of the problem is a great opportunity for the President — an opportunity to appoint great men. The real opposition to the bill comes from people who are afraid that the great power given the Federal Reserve Board will be used unwisely or abused. But the wide powers of the Board also give it a magnificent opportunity for public service. In the hands of the proper men it would be a tremendous advantage to the trade and commerce of the country. A Federal Reserve Board, composed of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of Agriculture, the Comptroller of the Currency, and four permanent Presidential appointees of a character that would commend them to the whole country, would be viewed somewhat as we look upon the Supreme Court, much as Englishmen look upon the directorate of the Bank of England (which is, by the way, not generally made up of bankers.)

Not even the appointment of justices to the Supreme Court of the United States is a greater opportunity or responsibility for the President than the appointment of the members of the Federal Reserve Board, and incidentally it greatly increases the office of the Comptroller of the Currency and adds to the tasks of the Secretary of Agriculture and of the Secretary of the Treasury.

WHY POLITICS IMPROVES

ONE of the tests of a President's ability to succeed in the hardest task in the world is the promptness and wisdom with which he handles such situations as that which arose out of the Attorney-General's order to delay the trial of the Diggs-Caminetti case in California. The Attorney-General made a

To delay justice for the con-
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nay delay decision on certain
nd refuse to consider others.
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ith cynical, critical eyes. Only
nd vigilant sincerity of purpose
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at the public demands. And
a large measure because of the
light to which our public men
ed that our politics is improving.

NIQUITY OF "RIDERS"

much discussed "rider" to
Sundry Civil bill was such
flagrant example of a vicious
legislation that it has at last
blic attention and public con-
toward this old evil.
rticular "rider" specified that
ne money appropriated in the
vil bill to enforce the Sherman
be used to prosecute farmers'
labor unions. *Giving Congress*
of every doubt and consider-
ing this a bona fide attempt to modify the Sherman Act, if the authors of this "rider" did not know that the principles underlying it were probably unconstitutional and that the "rider" itself was ineffective, they certainly should have known that amendments to the Sherman Act should be passed as such and not inserted in an appropriation bill.

If, on the other hand, it was an attempt to curry favor with the farmers and the labor unions by seeming to grant them immunity from the law though it really gave them nothing, it was a dishonest trick.

Wise leadership in the farmers' societies and labor organizations would have made them take this occasion to say that they wanted no special favors before the law, for this seemingly attempted discrimination on their behalf, inferentially at least, puts them in the class of "special interests." And in getting into the "special interest" class they have provoked the President into a special statement that where ever they break the law they will be prosecuted. This will be a new condition, for labor unions have violated the Sherman Act with impunity, so far as suits instituted by the Department of Justice are concerned. The President has specifically promised that this shall happen no more.

Except for the President's statement, there is nothing to recommend this "rider" to the public.

From the partisan standpoint it is likewise incomprehensible — a Democratic Congress putting a Democratic President in an embarrassing position. Congress must have known that the President would do just what he did — that, since the objectionable clause was ineffective to accomplish discrimination (there being other money available to prosecute possible violations of the law), he would sign the bill and at the same time issue a statement which would do more than all previous discussion to call down on it the public condemnation that it deserves.

A study of the consequences of vetoing a Sundry Civil appropriation bill within a few days of the end of the Government's fiscal year, with a tariff bill still in the throes of passage and a currency bill

being introduced, would convince any unprejudiced person that it would have been an unwise thing to do.

The net result of the whole performance is a crystallization of opinion against "riders" in legislation, and a new pronouncement that the Government will enforce the Sherman Act against labor unions. To attempt, even for a year, to limit the scope of the Sherman Act by a subterfuge like a "rider" is an utterly unjustifiable action.

It should be noted that the Attorney-General's scheme to add to the strength of the Government's control over the tobacco industry by putting a special taxing clause in the tariff bill was based on the same fundamentally unsound idea. Such a clause had no proper place in the tariff bill, and happily it was omitted. An appropriation bill should be only an appropriation bill. A tariff act should be only a tariff act, and an act to regulate business should do that and nothing more. If a bill can pass on its own merits it ought to pass that way. If it can not, it ought not to be allowed to "hitch on" to some other popular measure and to ride through on its back.

The machinery of legislation is complicated and difficult to tinker with, but in the last few years we have improved various other parts of our political machinery so much that we should be sanguine of the ability of Congress to improve its methods. Of the need of doing so, no more "horrible example" is needed than the rider on the appropriation bill. Its particular significance is that, though it is not worse than others that have gone before, it is more notorious. The public's mind has been focussed on it

The enforcement of the Sherman Act against combinations of labor has not been accomplished by the Department of Justice. There have been many suits against labor unions and their officials, but it is hard to find one started by the Government. The violations of the Sherman Act by labor unions is probably no worse now than it has been. The *difference* is that the President has *promised that the unions* shall not longer have *immunity.*

A NEW ERA OF INDUSTRIAL EFFICIENCY

WITH the passage of the new tariff bill, for the first time since the Civil War American manufacturers will be left to their own resources and abilities. The helping hand of the Government will be withdrawn. On the other hand, the manufacturers will have the advantage of free raw materials. Except psychologically, the change in the tariff will not affect manufacturers, even those that may expect foreign competition, as suddenly as many people suppose, for acquaintanceship, habit, and credit have much to do with trade.

But in the long run it will have two large and beneficial effects upon our industry. It will tend ultimately to separate the good from the bad combinations and consolidations in business. Combinations for efficiency will have an added incentive when foreign competition must be met. Combinations to fix prices will have less incentive because of the foreign competition.

The other large tendency will be to increase the efficiency of American manufacturing. Under the tariff many American industries have been relieved of the necessity of being efficient.

The efficiency experts have exploded one generally accepted business axiom, and that is that every man knows his business best. In some cases this is true; in a majority it is demonstrably false. The extent to which a man really knows his business measures the extent to which that business is really efficient. That many manufacturers do not understand their own business is evident from the particular cry they raise against the new tariff. They cannot compete with Europe, they declare, because they pay higher wages than European manufacturers.

Yet it is significant that it is precisely the industries that have the largest protection that are most behindhand in business methods and most notorious as payers of starvation wages. The woolen manufacturers present a case in point. For years they have enjoyed a protective duty of about 90 per cent. and, under this fostering care, they have somewhat "gone

ɔd." President Taft's tariff board the interesting discovery that the ɲ manufacturers really had no idea ıat their products cost — indeed, ıo system of keeping costs. Their nery nearly everywhere was a gener- out of date. Looms in use in 188o till doing active service. Meanwhile, have been charging the American : nearly twice as much for their pro- ıs European manufacturers charge. ıse is not an isolated, though perhaps ıggerated, one.

ıpite of these revelations, the Ameri- ɔolen industries will survive the new but they will survive, not by re- ɜ wages, but by installing modern nent, ending wasteful abuses in a ed different ways, and improving products.

nanufacturer of bicycle chains was aining recently to a well known ıcy engineer about the new tariff. nnot compete with German manu- ers under it," he declared. "The ıf material on these chains is only · cent. of the cost; the rest is labor. then, can I meet German manufac- , whose labor cost is so low?" Until fficiency expert investigated con- s, this argument seemed plausible h. When he did he had little lty in showing his client dozens of ions in which he could stop expensive ; and install new economic methods. d I can make bicycle chains cheaper he Germans with no duty at all — vithout cutting wages," said the tened manufacturer, after introduc- ıese new ideas.

l, whatever other good the new tariff plish, it will make the backward facturers discover themselves — the laggards come up to the standard r our better industrial plants. For st time they now have an opportunity ıe necessity to learn their own busi- And this new efficiency will ulti- y find its way into all departments ıerican life. It will become a great ıal educational force. Waste is the American sin — waste in govern- in private life, *in agriculture, in the national resources, in business.* If, in manufacturing, we can have a far-reaching lesson in efficiency and economy, no one can foresee what tremendous effects it may have upon the national character.

SCORNING THE PORK BARREL

FOR years there have been Congressmen who asked for votes because of their ability to get appropriations for their districts and who "pointed with pride" to the fruits of this ability. For many years to come, men will probably run for Congress and make this "honest graft" a plank in their platforms.

But it is interesting that in the last few years many Congressmen have had the courage to depict "the pork barrel" in its true light. The latest case is that of Representative J. J. Whitacre, of Ohio, who refused to attend the dedication of a new Federal building at Massillon (which has a population of 14,000) because the money for it was obtained by "pork barrel" methods.

In his letter declining the invitation he said:

"What is the matter with this country, anyhow, when Congressmen are measured by their ability to fool the people by the size of the appropriations secured for the district? Is that the measure of efficiency? Rather, is it not a measure of inefficiency and the very best reason for keeping such men at home?"

When enough members of Congress come to feel keenly the disgrace of the "pork barrel," the methods of making appropriations will be changed so that the conscienceless candidate will not be able to bid for votes by promises of Federal expenditures, and the more high-minded Congressmen will not be forced to compete with those who have no scruples about "pork." The remedy is in the hands of the members of Congress.

CHARACTER IN PUBLIC MEN

THE chief lesson to be drawn from the present political tangle in New York state (and perhaps the most reassuring) is that, after all, character is the one thing that counts in a public

man. Since January 1st, Governor Sulzer has been conducting a spectacular campaign for several important reforms. He has been battling for efficiency and economy in expenditures, for prison reform, for the improvement of the state's highways, and for direct primaries, all the time making a fight against Tammany Hall and boss-rule.

No one disputes that all these things are admirable and popular. And yet Governor Sulzer is apparently making little headway. For example, all authorities agree that the administration's direct primary campaign bill is admirable; that it is a much better bill than the measure which Governor Hughes advocated three years ago; and that if passed it would greatly improve political conditions in the state. But so far public opinion has not emphatically placed itself on Governor Sulzer's side. Three years ago Governor Hughes aroused the popular mind on this same issue; Governor Sulzer elicits only the most perfunctory response, and Tammany kills his bill with impunity.

The explanation is simple. The people have not abandoned their belief in this reform. The plain fact is that they have little enthusiasm for Mr. Sulzer. They have no great confidence in his fundamental sincerity. It is not that the attacks of Tammany Hall upon the Governor's character have had any influence on the popular mind. It sees through these things as keenly as it has seen through Governor Sulzer himself. The Governor's whole political career, since the days when, as Speaker of the New York Assembly, he proved a subservient tool of Tammany Hall — publicly eulogizing its leader as "that great statesman, Richard Croker" — has not been the kind which rejoices sober-thinking American citizens. His antics as governor, the stage setting which he has found indispensable for all his public acts, his cheap assumptions of democracy, his widely advertised imitations of Mr. Charles E. Hughes and of Mr. Woodrow Wilson, have not reassured them. His whole career has seemed to indicate that Mr. Sulzer was prepared to play the *particular kind of politics* that seemed *most likely to advance* his political fortunes. In the old days, he threw in his fortunes with Tammany Hall, because that policy seemed likely to pay returns; under present conditions, on the other hand, Mr. Sulzer finds it convenient to adopt a different programme. The fact that the people refuse to accept him at his own present valuation, and become lukewarm even when as governor he is apparently striving for things in the public interest, discloses a healthy political state of mind. Character is, after all, the one essential in a public man. Bombastic championing of the "peoples' cause," spectacular assaults upon bosses, even energetic work in behalf of necessary reforms will not avail; what the people demand, above all, is a real, honest, sincere, devoted man. The American people still yearn for ideal political leadership. In that way our political salvation lies. And the popular mind seems unerringly to detect the true from the false in its leaders.

AN AMERICAN POINT OF VIEW

MR. ROGER W. BABSON, the financial statistician, in one of his recent reports printed the following under the title, "The United States of America." It is particularly interesting because Mr. Babson has a perspective which the stay-at-homes often lack:

When leaving America last November I was more or less apprehensive concerning my country, but after traveling ten thousand miles about the world I conclude it is a pretty good place after all! Let me mention seven features which especially appeal to me:

(1) We have a great area in the temperate zone. It is the temperate zone that does and will rule the world. Business men and investors should remember this. If the northern hemisphere is not large enough for your activity, jump to the temperate zone of the southern hemisphere. Don't trouble the tropics.

(2) We have a wonderful soil and very great natural resources. Coal, iron, copper, and gold, as well as wide forests and fertile fields, are ours. Truly, God has been very good to us and all should try to be worthy trustees of these great gifts.

(3) We are isolated so as not to be involved in the great international strife to which most

are subject. The young men of our
little appreciate their exemption
ree years of compulsory military service.
le realize the great blessings we enjoy,
o our neutrality. Moreover, Germany,
d, and France maintain their great
and navies to avoid being swallowed
lay our nation ever remain neutral!
ne, hope the policy of the new Wilson
stration will continue along these lines.

The United States, however, has been
not only with land and capital, but
boring people unequalled on the face of
th. Our nation is peopled with some
est of every country. We should never
that any man must have courage and
n to "pull up stakes" in Sweden,
Austria, or Germany and bring his
to America without promise of work or
od. Yes, that takes real courage, and
nmigrants will, in my opinion, prove to
backbone of America. The "Pilgrim
" not only came in 1620 but they have
ming every year since.

t is true that our municipal govern-
ıre in many instances failures, and that
te governments are progressive but still,
se, experimental. Our National Govern-
aken as a whole, is the best in the world.
er people enjoys the freedom that we
ven in England, and also in several
of these older countries, a man is
lged by what he is, but by how he
rn; and as for political freedom, it is
nown in many of the nations of Europe.
erience the past winter in endeavoring
est kings and emperors in forming an
tional institute to measure the relative
ity of nations allows me to speak with
ty,

lot only are our land, people, and govern-
ıe best in the world, but our railroads,
utility properties, and great industrial
are also unequalled. Government
ıip of railroads may come, but deliver
n it! Oh, if we could only appreciate
p our great railroad builders instead of
and kicking them! As clients well
I am no "stand-patter," and have even
ferred to in England and on the Con-
as a Socialist, but I do believe that
ed with other nations our Government is
nest, our corporations the most humane,
labor the best off in the world. Only
anking field does Europe lead us. We
ırn much from the various banking,
haften, and Raiffeisen systems of Europe.
ın banks are far *inferior to those of every other great country.*

(7) Our farmers and school teachers are a great national asset, the farm is the basis of all material things, and education is the basis of all else. But we should not be too optimistic; our farmers and teachers should get busy. Let us be generous with both! Farming must be encouraged so as to be kept attractive, as we need more farmers. Teaching must be better paid, for we need stronger teachers. On the farms and in the schoolhouses the future of America depends, and we should do everything possible to raise the efficiency of both.

These are simple facts derived after four winters in Europe studying industrial, financial, and social conditions. Therefore, I say let us invest much money at home! Spend a good sum of money on American products! Work with, instead of against, industry! Travel about the United States first! Let us be "boosters" instead of "knockers!" Every day let us thank God that we live in a land of prosperity and freedom; and let us strive to increase and distribute these two great American assets.

ADVENTUROUS SCIENCE

THE American flag has been raised and the "Te Deum" has been sung upon the highest point in North America; and in Peru an American has discovered the ancient city of the Incas. Even the discovery of the Poles has not ended this age of adventurous exploration.

On the 7th of June a party led by Archdeacon Hudson Stuck reached the summit of Mt. McKinley, the top of the continent that for years had baffled all human ascent — except Dr. Cook. His "ascent" of Mt. McKinley was an introduction to his "discovery" of the North Pole. Archdeacon Stuck, the Episcopal missionary for Alaska, reminding us of the exploring Jesuit missionaries whose exploits fill the pages of American history, left Fairbanks on March 13th with three companions. Preparations had been under way for months, for as far back as last September one of the party had made a depot of supplies at McPhee Pass, 9,000 feet above sea level, from which the actual start for the summit was made.

The time taken to ascend Mt. McKinley is the first vacation that Archdeacon Stuck has had in the last five years that he has been a missionary to the Alaskan

Indians. Every season during this time some expedition has tried to reach the top of the mountain. All had failed until this mountain-climbing missionary reached the top of the continent and added another chapter to the science of exploration and the adventures of hardy men.

Far in the interior of Peru, on impregnable cliffs above the cañon of the Urubamba River, is Machu Picchu, a wonderful stone-built city now in ruins but once probably the chief citadel of the Incas. For many centuries it has been uninhabited and overgrown with jungle, at last to be rediscovered by an American college professor. In 1911, while looking for Vitcos, the last capital of the Incas, Professor Hiram Bingham, of Yale, discovered the palaces and temples and the defences of the city of Machu Picchu. He came back to this country and fitted out an expedition, financed by Yale University and the National Geographic Society, which has uncovered the wonders of this ancient citadel of refuge to the modern world.

The spirit of discovery and adventure is still alive as it was in the days of Drake or Pizarro, but it is followed now in the interest of science and not merely for the lust of gold.

A BUSINESS CREED

THE advertising business has taken stock of itself. The Associated Advertising Clubs at their last meeting in Baltimore adopted a creed, and they have instituted the machinery to keep the business clean.

The part of the creed that directly affects the public is:

> We believe in truth, the cornerstone of all honorable and successful business, and we pledge ourselves each to one and one to all to make this the foundation of our dealings to the end that our mutual relations may become still more harmonious and efficient. We believe in truth, not only in the printed word, but in every phase of business connected with the creation, publication, and dissemination of *advertising.*
>
> *We indorse the work of* the National Vigi*lance Committee, and believe* in the continued and persistent education of the press and public regarding fraudulent advertising, and recommend that the commission, with the coöperation of the National Vigilance Committee, should pass upon problems raised and conduct campaigns of education on these lines. We believe it to be the duty of every advertising interest to submit problems regarding questionable advertising to this commission and to the National Vigilance Committee.
>
> We believe in upholding the hands worthy to be upheld, and we believe that each and every member owes a duty to this association of enforcing the code of morals based on truth in advertising and truth and integrity in all the functions pertaining thereto.

The commission that is charged with carrying this creed into effect is made up of representatives of the thirteen advertising interests that comprise the Associated Advertising Clubs of America, and there is every reason to believe that it ought to be successful. In reality it is a kind of committee on morals.

At the Baltimore Convention, which was attended by delegates from nine countries, Mr. William Woodhead, the manager of *Sunset Magazine*, was chosen president. The Association, in analyzing its responsibilities to the public, by a unanimous vote approved of laws that would permit the producer of an article to fix the price at which it is to be sold.

There are not a great many businesses that have adopted a creed, but there are many whose organizations, while endeavoring to make business more profitable, exert a strong pressure to keep it upon a higher plane than it has ever been before.

And such endeavors add immensely to our progress and prevent many a scandal — for scandals will grow up in any business in which the people do not often examine their own practices with a critical eye.

THE "MINNESOTA RATE CASES"

BY THE Supreme Court's decision in the "Minnesota Rate Cases," handed down on June 9th by Justice Hughes, it is settled that the states have the power to fix rates on railroad traffic wholly within their borders, except where the use of that power interferes directly with the regulation of commerce

their borders, or amounts to a
ıtion of railroad property.
history of these cases, which were
st important tests of state control
tes ever undertaken in the courts,
ack to 1907. In that year, the
ota Railroad and Warehouse Com-
established maximum freight and
ger rates within the state, which
bstantially below the rates that had
ısly prevailed.
railroads affected, among which
wo of the leading systems of the
, the Great Northern and Northern
sought to have the new rates
d void on the grounds that they
ed with the rates prescribed by
l authority; that their effect was to
interstate commerce "by creating
and unjust discriminations between
es in Minnesota and those in ad-
states;" and that, in themselves,
ere confiscatory.
ision handed down on April 8, 1911,
ge Walter H. Sanborn, of the United
Circuit Court at St. Paul, sustained
ntentions of the railroads. Had
ision been upheld by the Supreme
state control over railroads would
een practically ended. So vital
e issue raised by the opinion of the
ourt that the Conference of Govern-
ointed a committee to assist the
y-general of Minnesota in appealing
es to the court of last resort.
of the railroads' contentions were
tely denied by the Supreme Court.
Hughes held that, though Congress
nplete power to regulate interstate
rce, including the power to regulate
within state boundaries whenever
ave an indirect effect upon com-
moving to points beyond, it has
een fit to exercise that power; there-
at in prescribing the rates involved,
ota did not exceed its authority as
by the Constitution. He also
at there had been a failure to show
e Minnesota rates resulted in dis-
ıtion against shipping centres out-
e state. Indeed, he declared that
ıase of the controversy was "pri-
for the investigation and deter-
n of the *Interstate Commerce* Commission, and not for the courts." And he pointed out that in these cases there were no findings of the Commission before the court for review.

In the cases of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific railroads, the rates in question were held not to be confiscatory. But in the case of the Minneapolis & St. Louis Railroad it was held that the rates would not permit a fair return to the company, and, accordingly, the decree of the lower court was to that extent affirmed.

The Minnesota rate decision was a disappointment to the railroads generally, for they have completely changed from their attitude of ten years ago when they preferred state to Federal regulation. The particular points at issue were not considered of such vital importance to the prosperity of the roads directly. They had hoped for a decision that would definitely place them all under the single authority of the Federal Government in matters of rate-making, and practically do away with the regulation of rates by the forty-eight states. Undoubtedly, so many regulating bodies create confusion, and we may be approaching the time when all authority of this kind will be concentrated; but in the past, in spite of many unwise decrees, these state commissions have done much public service.

If their usefulness has passed there is a direct way of practically ending their activity. Justice Hughes's decision made it plain that Congress has the final power to regulate interstate rates and even interstate rates that affect interstate business. Congress can exercise its dormant power to bring order out of the rate-making chaos. Already, preliminary steps have been taken to obtain the necessary legislation.

It is also possible that when a decision is rendered in the so-called "Shreveport case," now before the Supreme Court, the scope of the authority of the states in such matters will be found less extensive than appears in the light of the Minnesota decision. An important aspect of that case is that the Interstate Commerce Commission has declared discriminatory, and set aside, certain rates fixed by Texas within the state limits.

"IN THE HANDS OF RECEIVERS"

DURING the week of May 24th, in an otherwise dull and uninteresting market for investment securities generally, a sensational fall took place in the prices of the stocks and bonds of the St Louis & San Francisco Railroad.

The circumstances attending it caused experienced observers at once to become apprehensive of an approaching crisis in the company's financial condition. Therefore, little surprise was occasioned among them when, early in the following week, it was announced that the railroad had been taken out of the hands of the existing management and placed in the hands of the United States District Court at St. Louis, to be shielded from its creditors and relieved of the necessity of paying its debts until such time as the financial doctors might be able to cure its ills.

The "Frisco's" illness had been of long standing, although apparently of such a nature as to justify the hope that it might be outgrown. It reached an acute stage, however, when, with several million dollars of obligations falling due, the company found itself in want of both money and credit — the only means of relief in that kind of emergency — and unable to get either in adequate amount. Without them it went into the hands of receivers.

There is nothing more perplexing to the average investor than the way in which such situations are dealt with in this country. At best, the reorganization, or readjustment, of the affairs of any corporation of such complex financial make-up as a great railroad, whether it is undertaken with or without the guidance of the courts, is practically certain to impose hardship on some of the security holders. And it frequently happens that there are among these a good many people whom it has remained for hardship to teach the first lessons in the elementary principles of investment. At no time are such important *phases of investment* as the fundamental difference between the stockholder, partner, and the bondholder, or cred emphasized more forcibly than wh corporation is in the hands of receiver

It is timely, therefore, to attemp pick out of past experience in receiver a few things that may throw some on the present case. These are inte only to show the various steps of reorga tion in a general way.

Immediately following the namin receivers for a corporation, there is al a rush to organize "protective committ to look after the interests of the sec holders. The number of these commi usually corresponds closely to the nu of different outstanding issues of st bonds, notes, etc. For example, will be one committee representing ferred stockholders, one representing mon stockholders, another represe first mortgage bondholders, still an representing refunding bondholders, so on through the entire list.

The reason for the organization of committees is obviously to obtain certed action among the widely scatt creditors and stockholders, and sumably their membership is made u men whose interests are identical those of the people they are chose represent. They are sometimes holders of the securities themse Sometimes they are bankers who have some part in distributing the securiti investors, and who consent to give time to the committee work because moral responsibility to their clients. sometimes they are self-appointed for whose show of solicitude little re can be found, unless, perchance, it l afford themselves a kind of employ that is not infrequently provided w liberal "expense account."

The first work of a protective comm is to arrange with some well known company to receive deposits of the se ties; then to draw up an agreement

ed into with the security holders; inally to "invite deposits" by adver- ents in the newspapers and by circu- ters to those whose names and addres- re on the corporation's books.

s at this point that the stock or bond r's bewilderment usually begins. Is is advantage to enter into the agree- with the committee and depository? eldom possible for any one to give a positive answer to that question, one or the other, at the outset. A good depends upon the terms of the agree- , and the inexperienced investor acts / if he seeks competent interpretation em. His aim should be to find out ier or not the agreement gives the iittee unreasonable authority over leposited securities, and whether or : obligates him to pay excessive fees. t, of course, very much more depends the character of the securities he . If they are shares of capital stock, ior bonds, he will probably do well to the services of his committee. Fre- :ly, in the case of prior bonds, it is ble to say pretty definitely that they ot need "protection" — that it will e possible to disturb them in any of reorganization. In any event, is always plenty of time to decide attitude is best to take. Experience aught that the larger and more exten- the interests represented by a com- e, the more influence it is able to on reorganization. Hence, all are ly liberal with extensions of time, ich to receive deposits of securities.

anwhile, the business of the bankrupt ration is being carried on, almost as thing had happened, by the receivers, g always on the authority of the court hich they were appointed. Their cular aim, of course, is to devise some for increasing economy and efficiency eration. If they require new money ny purpose, they may, with the sanc- of the court, sell receivers' certifi- — a type of security that usually precedence over all bonds and other s of the corporation's indebtedness.

due time, a scheme of reorganization posed. In this the stockholders are sed to have but little voice. They are the owners of the property, and in theory, at least, are expected to bear practically all the burden of providing whatever new capital is considered necessary to put the corporation on its feet. It does not always work that way, however. The stockholders have found many times in practice that they can, if they will, get off much easier. They may say to the bondholders, who are the creditors: "We are willing to furnish so much new money, and no more. If that is not satisfactory, you may take the property." And the bondholders are nearly always unwilling to take physical possession through foreclosure, because that would shift the burden of finding the new capital entirely to their shoulders. It seems cheaper to compromise. So, through their committees, they agree to make some contribution, as well as to accept a reduction of their claims, and the reorganization plan is forthwith declared effective.

The final step is taken by a reorganization committee, which offers new securities in exchange for the old. The total amount of the new is frequently greater than the total of the old, but the proportion carrying obligatory charges against the new corporation's earnings is usually much less. In this exchange transaction, a new element enters—the banking syndicate. Its principal functions are to assume the responsibility of making up whatever deficit there may be in the new capital contributions — or "assessments"; and to undertake the sale of whatever additional securities the plan may authorize.

It is important to point out that stockholders or bondholders, who are either unable, or do not see fit, to pay their assessments in reorganization, are ordinarily denied the right to participate. Therefore, they lose all chance to make up the losses resulting from the receivership, by sharing in the corporation's future prosperity. Apparently, they are absolutely helpless, and it is from this phase of American reorganization methods that grave injustices so frequently result. Perhaps we shall have in this country some time a system similar to that of the English Reconstruction Acts, which seem to provide justice for all at small expense.

FEWER AND BETTER DOCTORS

HOW THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION IS WAGING WAR ON QUACKERY, PA' MEDICINES, AND MEDICAL FRAUDS AND, THROUGH ITS COUNCIL ON MEDI· CAL EDUCATION, INSURING A HIGHER AVERAGE OF EFFICIENCY AND ABILITY IN THE PHYSICIANS OF THE NEXT GENERATION

BY

FRANK PARKER STOCKBRIDGE

IN TEN years 56 medical colleges have gone out of existence, half as many as are left. This means a new era in American medicine, for the bad colleges have been killed off and the good ones maintained and improved.

When I was a boy of eighteen, just out of high school, I entered a medical college. It was what was known in our city as a "sundown" college — that is, its lectures and classes were held in the evening, so that students might earn a living during the day and study at night.

Except for the work in the dissecting room, instruction was wholly didactic. The professors — physicians in active practice — each came to the lecture room for an hour, on two or three evenings a week, and read his lectures.

That was all — no laboratory work, either chemical, biological, pathological, or bacteriological; no clinics — it was only by accident that I saw a single case of disease or a surgical operation during my entire course — and at the end of three years of this sort of "education" the student was given the degree of "M. D.," which was the only license required to practise medicine and surgery in our locality.

My medical *alma mater* long ago vanished. And with it, in the last half dozen years, have gone nearly fifty other medical colleges — some of them better, many of them a good deal worse, equipped to train physicians. In 1904, the United States contained 166 medical schools — nearly half of the world's supply. In June, 1913, there were only 118 in this country, and by January 1, 1914, there will be only 110.

It did not even require a high-school education to enter a medical college when I was a boy. To-day sixty of the remaining medical schools require at leas year of preliminary college work o versity grade in addition to a high-s diploma — and fifteen more will hav entrance requirement beginning in

The "sundown" medical colleges nearly all gone out of business an diplomas issued by those that still re are not recognized in most states. time professors and instructors largely replaced the busy physician once filled the chairs of nearly all the cal schools. Laboratory research and cal observations and experience are the rule, as these vital details of m education were formerly the exceptio

It takes four years of medical c work now, instead of three, to obtai degree of M. D. — and, when obta it carries no guaranty that its holder w allowed to practise. Formerly, it sufficient to have a school's diploma. day, every state has its medical exam board — in a few states two or even such boards — and no one may pra medicine without passing an examin to the satisfaction of the board. there are four states of which, remark enough, Massachusetts is one — the o being Colorado, Oregon, and Tenn — in which one need not hold the d of M. D. to be admitted to practice. five years ago there were eight stat which this condition prevailed — an day in Colorado the state board sees that no non-graduates are licensed. there are six states in which the b now require a medical graduate to had two preliminary years of college four more that require one year of co besides the medical course, and tw five in which the laws insist on at le

school education before taking up study of medicine.

These are only a few of the milestones mark the recent progress in medical tion in America — a progress which United States Bureau of Education tly referred to as the most marvelous er in the history of educational stand-

It is all of that. It is by all odds most important fruit of the warfare st quackery, "patent medicines," medical frauds generally that the ican Medical Association is waging essly, with ever-increasing vigor and ncy.

e quack flourishes to a large extent se there have been many, and still few, medical colleges which give es practically to any one willing to pay em; because there are still a few state al licensing boards which will accept ort of a degree as evidence of the ant's scientific status and profes- skill.

atent medicines" are bought and med by the public in large measure se of lack of confidence in physicians lack arising from the incompetence gnorance of a large proportion of itioners who obtained their diplomas colleges similar to or worse than the rom which I escaped only by the nt of not having the necessary $50 "graduation fee."

e of the most interesting volumes of t years is "Nostrums and Quack- published by the American Medical iation, in which the facts about many e "cures" for consumption, cancer, and drug habits, "female weakness," ases of men," obesity, skin diseases erything in the list of real or fictitious nts — are set forth. And behind one of these, and behind the various ical institutes" and similar frauds, nen holding medical degrees. The ng fact, however, is that hardly any ese medical fakers is a graduate of of the honorable group of medical es that have long maintained the st standards of education.

good many agencies are coöperating the American Medical Association e effort to put at least the worst of the quacks into jail or out of business. In the campaign of education, conducted by the Association under the general title of "The Propaganda for Reform," the active support and assistance of many periodicals besides the medical press and of writers who are not physicians have backed up the efforts made through the columns of the Association's own *Journal*. A larger proportion of the American people than ever before now realizes that any physician who advertises that he can cure any disease is a quack and a menace to society; that advertised drugs sold directly to the public are either useless or dangerous and nearly always fraudulent; that there are few, if any, specifics and no panaceas.

The Post Office Department, through fraud orders, has checked the activities of some of the worst of the "mail-order" medical swindlers; state authorities in some cases have been able to convict a few of the quacks — not of quackery, but of financial frauds — and in many instances to obtain the revocation of the licenses of others to practise medicine. The Pure Food and Drugs Act of the Federal Government, and similar laws in several states, have forced most of the "patent medicine" dealers to publish their formulas — but, with the exception of a very few states and a very few drugs, there are no legal prohibitions against the sale of any sort of poison or nastiness, under the name of medicine, to any one who wishes to try experiments with his own life and health.

The campaign of publicity has resulted in greatly curtailing the activities of the worst offenders, both quacks and drug vendors. No journal that makes a pretense to self-respect to-day will publish the advertising of the most glaringly fraudulent of these medical fakes. The better class of publications refuse practically all medical advertising — and the list of such publications is increasing almost daily. Yet, so long as the bunco-steerer's maxim holds true, that "there's a sucker born every minute," and some newspaper proprietors continue to conduct their publications on the late Mr. Barnum's theory that "the public likes to be humbugged," so long there will be a medium for quacks' and dope-vendors' advertising.

One of the early discoveries the American Medical Association made in its campaign was that the physicians themselves were not only being imposed on by manufacturers of proprietary remedies but in many instances were being cunningly used to introduce their patients to nostrums which the patients thereafter might be expected to buy without the formality and expense of consulting the physician. "To avoid substitution" — a slogan that appeals to everyone — "always prescribe an original sealed package," is the way in which more than one drug manufacturer has made thousands of physicians his agents. "On any patient not mentally unbalanced," comments the Council on Pharmacy and Chemistry of the Medical Association, "the result would be that the next dose he thought he needed would be purchased from the druggist direct." And if it seems absurd that any considerable number of physicians would prescribe proprietary remedies of which they do not know the composition — except as the manufacturer tells it to them — ask any druggist to let you look over his prescription files.

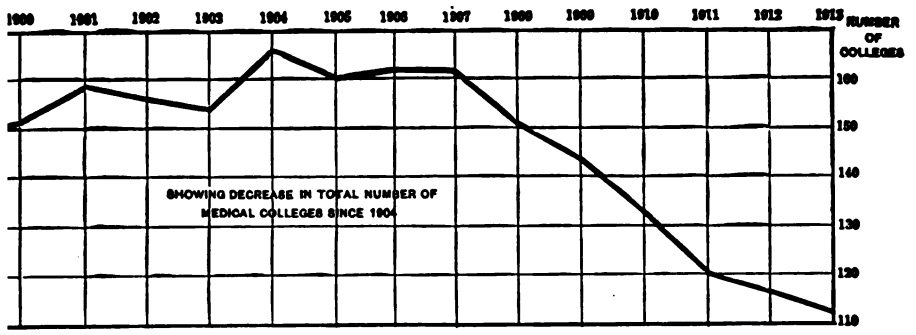
It would take a chemist to recognize off-hand that "sodiotrilithis anhydrosulphate," with a formula " $_3Li_2O$. NaO,SO_3. $_7HO$" doesn't mean anything at all — but it takes a pretty honest doctor to admit to the glib salesman for a drug house that he doesn't know what the latter is talking about when he describes a new "ethical" preparation in such language. And the average medical graduate of the old-fashioned schools may be excused if he doesn't recognize common sugar under the *alias* of "hyperoxidized carbo-hydrates" when offered under a proprietary name as a remedy for tuberculosis.

So long as its own members were prescribing frauds, however innocently, the Association could not consistently decry the frauds that were perpetrated directly on the public. So, in 1905, it established its Council on Pharmacy and Chemistry, with laboratories in which every sort of proprietary medicine is analyzed and tested. As a result of the publication of these analyses, a physician must be wilfully ignorant if he prescribes a compound of which he does not know the composition and probable effect. Having thus "cleaned house" — a that must always be continuou effective and is so in this instan Association is bringing its heav teries to bear on the quack doc the publicly offered nostrums and while the Council on Medical E is making gigantic strides in its insure that the physicians of th shall without exception be me highest scientific training and sional standards.

For that purpose, the American Association in 1904 voted to es permanent Council on Educati Arthur D. Bevan, of Chicago, w chairman, a position he still holds N. P. Colwell was chosen secret has since given his entire time to of the Council.

Very early in its existence the called a conference of represent medical colleges and state licensin at which the "ideal requirem medical education and licensi stated and agreed upon as inclu liminary education equal to u entrance requirements; a year c work devoted principally to chemistry, and biology, and four medical college, the last to bring in actual contact with cases at the a diploma from a medical school standing to be required of all li the standing of the school to l mined by investigation; an exa before a state licensing board; th tion by each state of licenses t been granted by others.

Modest enough qualifications, appear to the ordinary observ such were the conditions of medic tion in America, it was almost re ary even to dream of enforci requirements. Johns Hopkins sity, ever since the establishme medical department in 1893, had two or more years of college w prerequisite to entrance; Harvarc School had had similar requirem 1900, Western Reserve since 1 the Rush Medical College of th



WEEDING OUT THE USELESS MEDICAL SCHOOLS

IG THE RAPID DECLINE IN THE NUMBER OF MEDICAL COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES SINCE SIVE CAMPAIGN OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION FOR A HIGHER STANDARD OF EFFI-AN TO TAKE EFFECT IN 1907

cago since 1904. But there the l. Not another one of the 166 leges existing in the beginning quired even one year of college l preliminary to undertaking of medicine. Only a few of required that applicants be graduates. A considerable of them accepted students y real educational tests.

lest protests against the Coun-sal came from physicians who ial interests in the "proprie-cal colleges. A very large pro-he 166 were of this character — ganized, owned, and operated ng physicians for their personal prestige. Some were "sun-ges, some of them pretended to nuous instruction — none of yors of commercialized "educa-anything like adequate medical They were of all possible grades oor and very bad. Some of sheltered under the wings of universities, which lent their thout adequate investigation strength of the respectability ysician-proprietors, to enter-any instances questionable and very case inadequate. Others y and frankly mere "diploma- dealt out degrees with lavish grees that many state boards d issued licenses upon.

uld deprive the poor boy of his y to enter a profession," was rgument put forth against the nt of entrance requirements that would necessarily put many of these colleges out of business, since they depended, for their students, upon the fact that it was easy to get into and through them. But Dr. Colwell's first tour of inspection of medical colleges clearly demonstrated that the average cost to the student in the proprietary colleges was from 25 to 100 per cent. more than the average cost in the best-equipped and most thorough institutions. Since then the plea for the "poor boy" has not been heard so often.

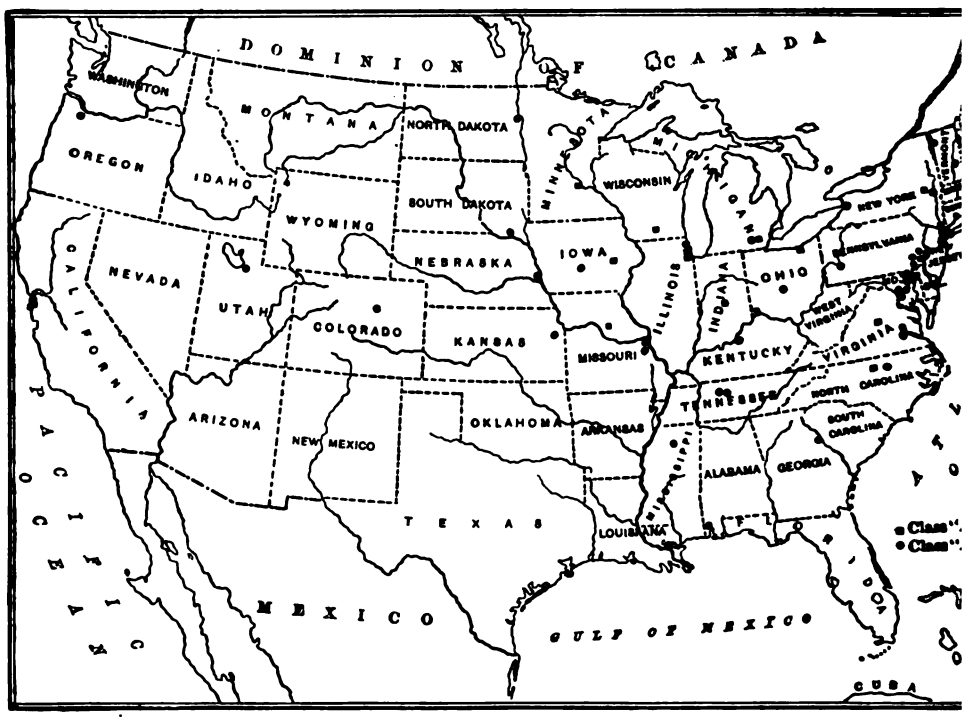
The Council had to have the facts about the medical schools of the country if it was to accomplish anything, and nobody had ever collected these facts. Therefore, most of Dr. Colwell's time for the first two years was devoted to the personal inspection of every medical college he could find listed in any state.

"I found medical colleges, issuing diplomas that entitled their holders to practise in many states, that had absolutely no equipment except a roll-top desk, a chair, and a card-index of 'prospects,'" Dr. Colwell told me. A very large proportion had not a single instructor who gave his full time to the work; more had either inadequate laboratories or no laboratories at all; some possessed good laboratory equipment never used by the students. Some of the more pretentious medical schools had no clinical facilities worthy of the name. There were enough fairly good medical colleges to supply all the reasonable needs of the Nation for physicians, with proper support and increased facilities, but the average of efficiency was

lower even than the members of the Council had anticipated.

An effort was made from the beginning to grade the medical schools on a percentage basis. The exact figures of percentages resulting from this first inspection by Dr. Colwell were never published — the subject was a somewhat ticklish one and the Council was feeling its way. The colleges themselves were notified of their respective standings, however, and an immediate improvement began to be

enormous shrinkage in the numb medical colleges in the United Stat the equally impressive improvem the educational standards of the n ing colleges. The accompanying gives a graphic illustration of wh curred. The college year of 1903- the close of which the Council on M Education was first established) ha the banner year for low-grade m schools in the United States. Fr medical colleges in 1880 the numb



WHERE THE GOOD MEDICAL SCHOOLS ARE

AS THEY ARE LISTED BY THE COUNCIL ON MEDICAL EDUCATION OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASS TION. CLASS "A PLUS" SCHOOLS GIVE "AN ACCEPTABLE 4-YEAR COURSE"; CLASS "A" SCHOOLS GI 4-YEAR COURSE THAT IS "LACKING IN CERTAIN RESPECTS BUT OTHERWISE ACCEPTABLE"

noticeable. I have a typewritten copy of Dr. Colwell's first inspection report before me. The percentages given the different colleges are admittedly liberal — whenever there was a doubt it was resolved in favor of the college. Yet of the 160 schools inspected only half (81) showed efficiency of 70 per cent. or more, 47 ranked between 50 and 70 per cent., and 32 fell below 50 per cent. in the scale.

From the completion of this first in- *spection in 1907* dates the beginning of the

increased to 166 by 1904. The gra of 1880 numbered 3,241 — enoug physicians, in all conscience, e every one had been a master of the s and art of medicine. By 1894 the n of graduates had reached the high mark, with 5,747 obtaining their d and the total attendance of st reached the record-breaking figu 28,142. Compare these figures with for the college year 1911-12, after years of activity on the part of the C

(the 1912-13 statistics are not yet compiled). In this college year there were only 17,277 students enrolled in all the 116 medical colleges then existing, and the 1912 graduates numbered only 4,483.

But these 4,483, compared with any similar number of medical graduates in any previous year, are immeasurably better equipped. The 4,000-odd who are graduating in 1913 are still better equipped. The classes of 1914 will bring to the practice of medicine an even higher average of training. Medical education, in short, is distinctly on the up-grade.

WHERE THE POOR MEDICAL SCHOOLS ARE

IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION, CLASS "B" IS COMPOSED OF SCHOOLS THAT "NEED GENERAL IMPROVEMENT TO BE MADE ACCEPTABLE," AND CLASS "C" IS COMPOSED OF SCHOOLS THAT "REQUIRE A COMPLETE REORGANIZATION"

The fruits of the movement for eductional reform began to be apparent when, in 1910, Dr. Colwell presented the results of his second inspection and classification of medical colleges to the Council. This time the classification was published. The time was auspicious, for the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching had just published the report of Mr. Abraham Flexner on his personal investigation of 155 medical colleges, giving such minute details and so convincing an array of facts that the public had begun to be aroused and the medical profession convinced that reforms were necessary. One of the effects of Mr. Flexner's reports was (easily the most conclusive of arguments for a still further reduction in the number of medical colleges) to open the eyes of many physicians who had viewed somewhat askance the efforts of the Council, and to put all the best elements of the profession solidly behind the movement for educational reform.

In this report of 1910 to the Council, medical colleges were graded in three classes: "A" including those which were acceptable though not perfect, "B" those which were unsatisfactory in certain particulars but capable of improvement, and "C" those requiring a thorough reorganization to make them satisfactory. There were 72 colleges in class A, 30 in class B, and 31 in class C — a decrease in the total

number from 160 to 133 and an increase in the percentage of satisfactory schools. This record showed that 28 medical schools were requiring two years of college work, in addition to a high-school education, as a requirement for admission, and that ten more had come up to the standard set by the Council five years before and were requiring one year of college before entering on the study of medicine — a long step ahead in five years.

And the standards required by the Council for an acceptable medical college are constantly being set higher, yet the third classification, published in April, 1913, shows 24 colleges having a standing of "A plus," 41 in the "A" grade, 24 in the "B" grade and 29 in the "C" grade— a total of 118.

After January 1, 1914, no medical college will be included in Class A which does not come up to the standard first set by the Council, requiring of every student a year of work in a college of liberal arts before beginning medical study, in addition to four years of high-school work or its equivalent. In February, 1913, the Association of American Medical Colleges, comprising in its membership practically all the efficient medical schools, adopted the same standard, to become effective on the same date. The preliminary college year must equal the work done in the freshman year in the standard colleges and universities and include chemistry, physics, and biology, and the study of either French or German.

Thirty-two medical colleges now require two years of college work as a requisite for entrance, two more have announced that they will require this in 1914, and two more have announced it for 1915. Twenty-four more colleges have adopted the one-year requirement and 15 more will put it into effect in 1914. Thus, in 75 of the 118 medical colleges now in existence, students graduating as physicians in 1919 or later will be as well equipped to practise as the graduates of only four or five of the very best medical schools were in 1904.

Where there were few full-time, salaried instructors in the medical colleges of 1904, there were in 1912, in 117 medical colleges, *876 full-time teachers, 490* of professional rank. Only 30 colleges were reported as having no full-time teachers. And these are the colleges that are most rapidly disappearing. The commercial medical colleges, with few exceptions, have vanished completely. Twenty-eight schools that existed in 1904 are extinct and 37 have merged with other colleges, thus building out of several small and inefficient colleges one large and strong one, as in Louisville, where five medical schools have recently been combined into one. Other mergers announced to take place this year will bring the number of medical colleges down to 110 by the end of 1913.

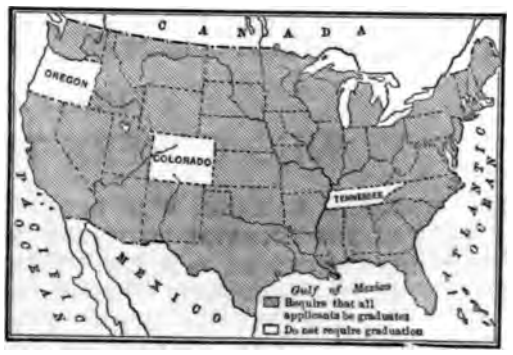
A very interesting phase of this remarkable development in medical education is the extent to which the medical colleges are becoming state institutions. In 27 states medical colleges are now conducted by the state universities, 20 of these giving the full 4-year course and the degree of M. D., and seven a 2-year course without degrees. All but two of these state medical colleges are listed as "A plus" or "A" in the latest classification of the Council, and one of them (of the University of Minnesota) requires a fifth year as a hospital interne before it gives the medical degree to its graduates. Thirteen of these state medical schools now require two years of college work before taking up the 4-year medical course, and the Universities of Georgia and Illinois have announced this requirement to take effect in 1914 and the University of Alabama in 1915. In 15 states there are now no medical colleges except those of the state universities and in another — Alabama — this will be true in 1915.

A particularly gratifying phase of the improvement in the quality of the medical colleges that remain after the poorer ones have been weeded out has been the rapid progress made in the South, where some of the most vigorous objections were raised when the Council first promulgated its plans. The University of Georgia Medical Department, at Augusta, formerly a "proprietary" medical college in everything except its name, has obtained a fund of $45,000 for improvements by public subscriptions, an annual appropriation of $10,000 from the city, has been granted full

control of the staff of its city's hospital, and its rating in the Council's classification has gone up from "B" to "A." The Medical College of the State of South Carolina, an old institution of such low grade that it formerly had a "C" rating, has raised $76,000 by public subscriptions from the citizens of Charleston, has taken over the control of the city hospital to provide adequate clinical facilities, and has been granted a $10,000 annual appropriation by the state, making it for the first time a genuinely public institution. It now has a "B" rating and gives promise of further improvement in its standards and facilities. In Tennessee twelve medical schools have given place to five, of which three, including one Negro school, have shown remarkable improvement. Alabama, Arkansas, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and South Carolina each now has a single state-controlled medical college. Eight of the Southern medical schools have adopted the higher entrance requirements recommended by the Council and three more will do so next year. "In no section," said the Council on Medical Education in its report to the American Medical Association in June, 1913, "have improvements in medical education been greater than in the Southern States."

With all the advance that has been achieved, tremendous as it is, the Council is still far from satisfied and the medical profession generally is demanding even higher educational standards. The Council has collected statistics which show that of 822 hospitals having 100 or more beds, 279 have no internes, and that 1,054 of 1,363 smaller hospitals have none. The other 852 hospitals provide clinical facilities for and avail themselves of the services of 3,006 young graduate internes — but there are about 1,500 graduates yearly who get no hospital practice and about 1,400 hospitals with 135,000 beds have no internes. To bring the needs of the medical colleges and the opportunities offered by these hospitals together and eventually to establish a requirement on the part of state boards of a hospital interneship as a requisite for license is one of the present aims of the Council.

Another problem, even more vitally important to the public and the medical profession, is the unification of state laws regulating the practice of medicine — or, at least, the establishment of minimum requirements to which the laws of every state shall conform. Much progress has been made in this direction. The Federation of State Medical Boards — which includes nearly all but not quite all these bodies — is coöperating with the Council in this respect, but conditions of licensing are still in a very confused state. Only eleven state licensing boards — those of North Dakota, Iowa, Minnesota, Colorado, Indiana, South Dakota, Connecticut,



FOUR BACKWARD STATES

BACKWARD IN THEIR LAWS GOVERNING THE REQUIREMENTS FOR A LICENSE TO PRACTISE MEDICINE, FOR THEY DO NOT EVEN DEMAND THAT A DOCTOR SHALL BE A GRADUATE OF A MEDICAL COLLEGE

Kansas, Utah, Vermont, and Pennsylvania — require more than a high-school education preliminary to the study of medicine as a requisite for license. The six first-named require two years of general college work, the others, one year. In nine states — Arizona, Florida, Georgia, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Oregon, Tennessee, Washington, and Wyoming — and the District of Columbia, the law is silent concerning the educational qualifications, other than medical diplomas, of licensed physicians. In Massachusetts, Tennessee, Colorado, and Oregon, the law does not require physicians to be graduates of medical colleges, and among these states only the board of Colorado has power to refuse a license on the ground of an unsatisfactory diploma. Yet even this condition is an advance from that of five years ago, when Alabama, Arkansas,

Mississippi, and Rhode Island also admitted non-graduates to the practice of medicine. And in twenty-one states diplomas issued by colleges rated by the Council as in Class "C" are not recognized. There is still much work ahead for the Council on Medical Education, as there is for the Propaganda for Reform and for the Council on Pharmacy and Chemistry. Graduates of a certain Class "C" medical college in Kansas City, for instance, though they cannot be licensed in Missouri, have no trouble in obtaining licenses from one of the three boards in Arkansas—licenses which are then recognized in many other states — and conditions equally unsatisfactory still obtain elsewhere. There are still nearly thirty Class "C" medical colleges in existence — just as there still are quacks and patent-medicine advertisers. But the powerful forces of reform working through the American Medical Association are rendering it reasonably certain that the next generation at least will be freer from the wiles of quacks and patent-medicine frauds than ours has been.

THE AMERICAN "HOME SECRETARY"

THIRD ARTICLE OF

WHO GOVERN THE UNITED STATES

MR. FRANKLIN K. LANE, WHO BRINGS TO THE GREAT TASKS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR BOTH GOOD NATURE AND A BOLD AND DIRECT SPIRIT — HIS CAREER AS PRINTER, EDITOR, LAWYER, POLITICIAN, AND INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSIONER — WHAT HE INTENDS TO DO FOR ALASKA AND FOR THE RECLAMATION PROJECTS

BY

BURTON J. HENDRICK

THE whole of Washington clearly feels a sense of gratitude to Mr. Wilson for making Mr. Franklin K. Lane his Secretary of the Interior. The national capital has known Mr. Lane intimately for several years; even the newsboys have learned to love his jovial presence and properly appreciate his traits of mind and character. To the public outside Washington, however, the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission has always seemed a somewhat austere and formidable person. He is the "strong," the "aggressive" man; the "fighter," prepared to throttle the spoilers of the public domain as remorselessly as he has the predatory railroads. His photographs, which usually show Mr. Lane's face in dignified repose, with its quiet and penetrating eyes, its tightly closed lips, and its expansive forehead, sometimes accentuate this idea. *The popular mind associates* Mr. Lane with "long and short hauls," railroad rates and rebates, inquisitorial examinations of suspected financiers, recalcitrant witnesses, volumes of dreary statistics, and express company iniquities. He has hitherto had only one point of contact that seemed definitely human: Mr. Lane is mainly responsible for the fact that upper berths are now not so expensive as lower berths.

However, as Washington knows Mr. Lane, his predominant quality is not austerity nor combativeness; it is nothing more complex than superabundant good nature. His greatest gift is the gift of making and retaining friends. This quality sits upon him easily and naturally, as the one law and order of his being; with Mr. Lane, to love his fellow man is merely normal functioning — a kind of reflex action. Mr. Lane has lived forty-nine years; in that time he has been a printer's devil, a college student, a newspaper reporter, an editor, a lawyer, a

politician, a district attorney, an Interstate Commerce Commissioner. In all these activities he has consistently sounded this human note. He has dealt preeminently with men and only secondarily with things. He has never dissevered himself from these associations; Mr. Lane's friends follow him everywhere and mingle inextricably with his career. A man who has once favorably impressed his affection and his respect evidently never passes out of his recollection.

All through his career at Washington, Mr. Lane has indulged this amiable weakness. The most trusted subordinates have not been politically recommended candidates, but the men whom he has known and liked in less prosperous days. Mr. John H. Marble, for many years Mr. Lane's secretary on the Interstate Commerce Commission, has succeeded him as a member of that important body. Mr. James D. Phelan, Mr. Lane's old political comrade in San Francisco — the man who really launched Mr. Lane in his political career — was his own selection for the Cabinet post which he actually holds himself. A significant fate has followed the men who twenty years ago worked with the present Secretary on the Tacoma *News*. Two of his most accomplished reporters now fill responsible positions on the Interstate Commerce Commission. Mr. Lane had hardly taken the oath of office as Secretary of the Interior when he appointed his old German partner in this same newspaper enterprise surveyor-general of the state of Washington.

"Poor Roediger," says the Secretary, as he pensively recalls those early Tacoma days, "he died two weeks after I had appointed him."

This love of old associates, however, is not one-sided; Mr. Lane's old friends remember him as tenaciously as he remembers them. He had a striking illustration of this one day ten years ago when he was making a campaign for the governorship of California. He had established his headquarters on the tenth floor of one of the best known San Francisco buildings. One day an amazing spectre appeared before the bustling, shirt-sleeved candidate. It was a middle aged man, dirty, dust-besmeared, his clothes in tatters, his feet protruding in several directions through his fragmentary shoes. His wan, unwashed face, his lack-lustre eyes, his long, thin, grimy hands implied a condition of extreme weakness and half starvation. Under his arm he carried a yellow dog as disconsolate and travel-stained as himself.

"Well, who are you?" said Mr. Lane, after he had recovered his self-control.

"Don't you remember me, Mr. Lane?" The far-away, familiar voice and language seemed out of keeping with the tramp-like make-up. "I'm 'Ham and Eggs.'"

Those words at once explained the mystery. The Tacoma *News*, under Mr. Lane's editorship, had a particularly bright and popular reporter who, whenever the occasion demanded, used to interview grandiloquently two well known local Negroes on questions of state and international import. The high flown, Johnsonian language and the philosophic sentiments of these interviews, in contrast with the well known characteristics of the two darkeys — known as "Ham and Eggs" — furnished the element of humor.

"For Heaven's sake, where did you come from?" asked Mr. Lane, after he had pulled him into his private office.

"From Southern California."

"How did you get here?"

"I walked the whole way — four hundred miles."

His old employee, living quietly in the southern part of the state, had heard that Mr. Lane was making a campaign for governor. He immediately felt impelled to volunteer his assistance; and, not having the money for his railroad fare, he started forth on foot. A journey of this kind under the most favorable circumstances would have sufficiently tested his loyalty; across the forests and mountains and deserts of Southern California, however, the undertaking was really heroic. The man tramped all day and slept in the open sage-brush at night. On the way he picked up a friendless and dilapidated dog, and together the two trudged silently toward San Francisco. It was not until the man reached the building in which Mr. Lane had his headquarters, however,

that his devotion was supremely tested. The elevator boy refused to let the man enter the car; tramps were not allowed in the building, and the rules likewise excluded dogs. The stranger patiently tucked the mongrel under his arm and walked up nine flights of stairs!

Naturally, Mr. Lane put his devoted associate to work. He did excellent service in the campaign. Should "Ham and Eggs" ultimately turn up as an employee in the Interior Department, probably no one who understands Mr. Lane's political habits would be surprised.

And when one has told this story, he has unfolded the mainspring of Mr. Lane's character and largely explained his political and personal success. It also makes clear that the President has acted wisely in selecting him for the Interior Department. There is certainly no Cabinet office that makes such insistent exactions upon one's human qualities. No department brings the Federal organization so closely to the people, or touches them at so many vital points. For several years after its organization, Mr. Lane's branch of the national service was known as the Home Department — the title which it bears in England to-day. It is regrettable that Congress ever changed the name, it is so comprehensively descriptive. Mr. Lane is the American "Home Secretary." His purview is exclusively domestic; he does not handle foreign politics, the currency, the army, Wall Street, or the embattled fleets; he deals chiefly with the many billion acres and the many million people living west of the Mississippi River. It is not so much in the public domain — the arable acres, the reclamation projects, the mines, the forests, the coal — that he finds his predominant interest; his real occupations are the people themselves. Back of our well advertised national resources and the red-tape of officialdom the Secretary must have constantly in his vision the miner in the mountains, the stock-raiser on the desolate grazing lands, the reclamation pioneer hungrily seeking for a little water to feed to his thirsty crops, the homesteader on the outlook for a new location, the old soldier scanning the mails for his quarterly pension, the Indian always ready to fall a prey to the harpies that encompass him. All these people, in a sense the wards of the Nation, look upon the Interior Department as a kind of general provider. They are the reason why the department exists. The Secretary's relation to them is paternal; the Indians actually call him "father." The Interior Department largely helped to wreck the Taft Administration, mainly because Mr. Ballinger could not approach his problem from this immediate human point of view. Just how successful Mr. Lane may prove we cannot say, for he has not yet been tested; he may be a Cromer in administration, a Clive in action — or he may not; but a man whose winning character can compel an old associate to walk four hundred miles across the desert — to say nothing of nine flights of stairs in a modern skyscraper — to render a small personal service, has qualities that in themselves promise well for success.

Mr. Lane's career, however, practically answers most of the questions likely to be asked concerning his attitude on certain pressing problems in his department. When he ran for the governorship of California in 1902, he described himself as a "Roosevelt-Democrat"; and admiration for Mr. Roosevelt has been one of the main inspirations of his life. The conspicuous spots in his career for the last twenty-five years emphasize this "progressive" tendency. Born in Prince Edward Island, Canada, in 1864 — thereby making himself ineligible to the Presidency — the son of a modest Methodist preacher, Mr. Lane came to California when he was three years old, received his early education at the public schools, spent two years at the University of California, served a newspaper apprenticeship as a printer's devil, reporter, and editorial writer, and finally settled down to the practice of law. Like many other public men, especially those who think in new and possibly revolutionary lines, Mr. Lane owes his early intellectual stimulus to Henry George. In 1889 he came to New York as correspondent of several Western newspapers; here he be-

came a member of the Reform Club, an institution which served not only as a headquarters for attacks upon the Republican tariff, but as a meeting place of certain young men who did not accept conventional ideas about the distribution of property and the functions of government. The central figure in this group was Henry George, then at the highest point of his personal influence. Whether Mr. Lane accepted Mr. George's ideas on the land question or not, his mind certainly changed its character as a result of this association. He then grasped one conception that still abides and that promises to influence his administration of the Interior Department; the belief which most people then regarded as "socialistic," and which has since become almost orthodox: that government, under modern conditions, does not exist merely to protect persons and property, but to make everybody better, happier, and as much a participant as possible in the advantages and comforts of life.

When, in 1892, Mr. Lane jumped back to the Pacific Coast, and became the editor and part owner of the Tacoma *News*, his editorial policy immediately showed the results of his friendship with Henry George. A strike broke out among the printers; Mr. Lane championed the cause of the strikers, became a member of their union, and has ever since figured as a friend of labor. He found that the dominant political gang was looting the city treasury; he exposed the situation — and "exposures" were not so common in 1892 as they have since become — and sent the ring-leader to jail. The chief of police was blackmailing the exploiters of vice; as a result of Mr. Lane's activities, he left town, and went to Alaska, where he quickly made a fortune of $300,000 in the mines. "You're the best friend I ever had," he afterward told Mr. Lane. Mr. Lane's editorial policy on the silver issue strikingly illustrates not only his economic sanity but his journalistic courage. His paper was the only one on the Pacific Coast that refused to support the free silver campaign. Afterward, however, Mr. Lane did support Mr. Bryan for the Presidency. He thought that Mr. Bryan, though wrong on the financial question, was right on the main issue — the development, in the United States, of an exploiting class. "Not many Americans in 1896," says Mr. Lane, "saw that that was really the political question of the time, though most of us, looking back, see it now. Mr. Bryan was fundamentally right in his fight against special privilege, though wrong in regarding the free coinage of silver as an essential detail of his propaganda."

Mr. Lane's most immediate difficulty as editor of the Tacoma *News*, however, was not free silver, nor labor unions, nor municipal graft; "my all-absorbing problem," he says, "was to manipulate events so that the 'ghost would walk' regularly every Monday morning." He had a splendid time as editor; "there is no occupation so satisfactory," he says, "as editing an independent newspaper in a live, growing Western town; after I retire from public life I would ask no more genuinely agreeable and satisfactory way of spending my last years." Such an occupation, of course, is always beset with financial difficulties; and, when the panic of 1893 laid prostrate the Tacoma boom and forced the editorial staff of the Tacoma *News*, as Mr. Lane expresses it, "to retreat to the seashore and live on clams," he was glad to sell his half interest and go back home to San Francisco.

Here, in a few years, after serving several successful terms as district attorney, Mr. Lane conducted an energetic campaign for the governorship. This was in 1902. The mere fact that Mr. Lane, a Democrat, should aspire to this office in Republican California indicates a certain inborn audacity. What is more remarkable is that, in the opinion of his adherents, he actually won — only to have the dominant political powers count him out.

What is chiefly interesting in this campaign, however, are the issues. Ten years had passed since the Tacoma days; Mr. Lane was now a "forward looking" publicist in earnest. The accepted description in 1902 — a political eon has passed since then — was that Mr. Lane was a "radical," unsafe and insane, a Socialist — whatever that word may mean.

All that he did, however, was simply to preach what is now known as "conservation." California had enormous tracts of forests, water-power sites, and arid lands. Mr. Lane suggested that the state assume the task of making these useful to the people. The state itself, he argued, should develop its water-power sites, and then turn them over to responsible people on terms that would promote the interests of all its citizens. It should build irrigation reservoirs and canals for the redemption of its desert lands; in other words, adopt the policy now generally known as "reclamation."

That Mr. Lane stood against the Southern Pacific political machine goes without saying. The public was then hearing for the first time the words "rebate" and "regulation," a subject upon which California needed detailed education, as subsequent events showed. The truth of the matter is, however, that the voters only dimly comprehended Mr. Lane's references to these abstruse matters — they did not understand them — for he was several years ahead of the procession. What they did understand and like was Mr. Lane himself. Whether his arguments on the new state activities made many votes is problematical; what really piled up his majority was his genial, smiling, conversational, style of campaign oratory, to say nothing of a handshake that overcame all opposition.

Soon after Mr. Lane's defeat — or counting-out experience — a distinguished visitor came to California, heard him make a speech, and shook his hand. This was President Roosevelt. At that time Mr. Roosevelt was engaged in one of his most celebrated contests — his campaign to reform the Interstate Commerce Commission. For nearly twenty years this body had existed in a condition of somnolence. As an engine to control the railroads, it had practically no authority. Public opinion was now demanding something more effective — an active, serious commission that would have the power to fix rates, to enforce adequate service, to make the Government a vital figure in the management of these properties. *In anticipation of* this legislation, Mr. Roosevelt was looking about for men of the new type of thinking as members of the reformed commission. As a Pacific Coast representative seemed desirable, Mr. Lane's appointment to the commission became almost inevitable.

Mr. Lane had hardly taken his seat when he began to give expression to his large stock of carefully accumulated ideas. The boldness, the directness, with which he made his points startled the public and the railroads. He assailed the greatest and most difficult situations first. Not an obscure backwoods railroad, but the Union Pacific; not a struggling upstart of finance, but Edward H. Harriman — Commissioner Lane proceeded to break his teeth upon problems of this magnitude. For years there had been more or less definite talk about railroad monopoly; Mr. Lane now showed the public, for the first time, precisely what this word monopoly signified. Under his cross-examination, Mr. Harriman laid bare all his plans. It was then that Mr. Harriman announced his intention of "going in and buying some more things;" not content with the Union Pacific, the Southern Pacific, the Illinois Central, and other similarly comprehensive properties, he had his eyes upon the Santa Fé. "Where was all this to end?" asked Mr. Lane: would Mr. Harriman go on until he had captured everything on the Pacific and Atlantic Coasts, thereby monopolizing all the railroads in the country? That was precisely what he would like to do, said Mr. Harriman. Perhaps, under efficient regulation, this might have been an excellent thing — this view can be defended; Mr. Lane, however, is one of those who do not believe in railroad monopoly. In his view there is nothing so wicked and so contrary to the public interest. The idea that all the United States west of the Mississippi should be subject to the will of a single group of men was to him abhorrent. His famous report on the Union Pacific amalgamation showed how easily Mr. Harriman, by using the credit of one road to purchase another, would bring about such a situation. The breaking of the Union Pacific monopoly is largely his work. More

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MR. FRANKLIN K. LANE

WHO "COMES TO HIS NEW DUTIES AS SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR WITH CERTAIN FUNDAMENTAL CONVICTIONS. HE BELIEVES IN THE EXTENSION OF GOVERNMENTAL POWERS. HE BELIEVES THAT THE NATIONAL RESOURCES EXIST PRIMARILY FOR THE PEOPLE AND ONLY SECONDARILY FOR INVESTORS AND PROMOTERS"

than any other man he is responsible for the frantic attempts made in the last few months to divorce the Southern Pacific from the Union Pacific.

Other notable cases, the decisions in which were written by Mr. Lane, lifted the Interstate Commerce Commission from the obscure position it had held and made it as vital an agent in directing national policy as is the Supreme Court. He forced the transcontinental railroads to put down their rates in the intermountain states; he wrote the decision which prohibited the Western lines from increasing their rates three years ago. The practical regulation of railroad charges by this new Federal authority is now a fixed fact. Popular government in the United States, largely as a result of these Franklin K. Lane cases, has advanced another peg.

And so we find that Mr. Lane comes to his new duties in the Interior Department with certain fundamental convictions. He believes in the extension of governmental powers. He believes that the national resources exist primarily for the people and only secondarily for investors and promoters. He would have California develop its water-power sites; naturally he would favor the Federal Government doing the same thing. He does not stand for monopoly in any form. He nourishes the sentiments of an early disciple of Henry George toward the powers that exploit. He was not afraid of the name of Harriman — it is hardly likely that he will tremble before the name of Guggenheim. He fought the battle of the shippers and the travelers when he was on the Interstate Commerce Commission; it is inconceivable that, as Secretary of the

Interior, he should not protect first of all the homesteader, the sheep-grazer, the lumberman, the miner, and the Indian.

If Mr. Lane's only problem, however, were a general one of keeping hands off, his task would be comparatively easy. But that part has already been done. The Government has fenced in the forests, locked up the coal lands in Alaska, withdrawn the water-power sites, sequestered the oil wells, the phosphate beds, and the other stores of national capital. This was a splendid and necessary piece of work. But it was merely preliminary to conservation; it was not conservation itself. It was comparatively easy to collect this enormous wealth and mark it "reserved." But Mr. Lane has the really difficult task. He has to open it up again. I asked him what he proposed to do about this great problem.

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MRS. FRANKLIN K. LANE

"The first thing I would like," he said, "is a liberal appropriation from Congress with which to buy a large supply of scissors. They would be useful in cutting red-tape."

"Oh yes, the problem is a great one," Mr. Lane continued, "but it is nothing to despair about. Everything is not conservation that is so-called. There are no questions involved that cannot be solved by the application of common sense. If I could get together all the people most interested, sit down at a table and quietly talk things over, I am sure we could settle everything amicably and satisfactorily to all concerned. We need to approach all conservation matters from the human point of view. My great ambition is to humanize this whole department. We have a definite situation. The Nation has enormous resources still left — in coal, in oil, in mineral deposits, in water-power sites, in forests, and in grazing land. These lands exist out there not primarily to be surveyed, mapped, reported on in dreary official documents, and fenced in by red-tape. They exist to be used. My interest in them is human, not geological. They will serve a valuable purpose only if they make the people happier, more prosperous, and contented. We need to develop them so that we shall have room for another 100,000,000 people. It goes without saying that they are not to be monopolized. A monopoly of any kind is the most perfect instrument of oppression and unrighteousness known, whether a monopoly in railroads, in manufacturing, or in land. Unquestionably men have become so audacious in recent years — their imaginations have been so inflamed by the gigantic scale upon which modern industrialism is based — that they have actually dreamed of concentrating the control over enormous areas — whole states, perhaps a territory as large as Alaska. But this is only a dream — they will not succeed. My ambition will be to encourage settlement and development in the real sense of the term."

That an organized effort is now being made to break down the conservation policy of the last seven years is clear. It

crops out everywhere. There are those in Washington who are making it their business to disseminate "information" on this great question. This hostility assumes several phases. The main cry is that the "conservation cranks" have "locked up" and otherwise set aside our national resources. Timber is rotting in the forests, we are told, and lumbermen are crying aloud for wood; water is running to waste down our streams while cities are going unlighted and mill wheels are standing unturned. What is the use of phosphate beds if we cannot use them for fertilizer? What good are oil wells that are untapped or coal lands that are unmined? These objectors make so much noise that the public is in danger of seriously believing that "conservation" really means "bottling up."

The truth is that for seven years the Roosevelt conservationists have been attempting to reopen the public domain. The opposition has come from those who are now making such a great lamentation. Bills in endless number are presented to every Congress providing for the development of Alaska and all our public land. But these bills do not pass. The reason is that they carefully safeguard the public interest. They do not open the public domain to the exploitation that prevailed in the good old grab-bag days. Powerful interests, in Congress and out, regularly defeat them. At present the opposition takes the form of clamoring for "states' rights." The Federal Government, according to this policy, should turn over all its forests, mines, water-powers, and other resources into the hands of the states in which they are. This means, of course, merely the restoration of the old conditions: if the states obtain these lands, they will unquestionably soon find their way into private ownership. "Conservation" would quickly end.

MISS NANCY LANE

Many Western newspapers acclaimed Mr. Lane's appointment as an endorsement of this "states' rights" idea. As a Westerner it was assumed that he would sympathize with it. There are plenty of Californians who think that California should control the Government lands within that state.

"How about states' rights?" I asked Mr. Lane.

"It is not to be discussed. The Federal Government must control its own property, of course."

And he passed at once to a more pertinent subject. "Alaska," he said, "tremendously appeals to my imagination. It is the future home of many million Americans and of several new states. It contains 60,000,000 acres of arable land. Its reindeer —they live on mountain moss, which no other animal will eat — will some day supply the Pacific Coast with meat. And we know all about its coal mines."

"But how are you going to get to them?"

"Build railroads, of course," Mr. Lane answered. "If private capital won't do it, the Government should. In fact, I am in favor of the immediate construction of an Alaskan railroad by the Government. It cannot get to work too quickly to please me. I shall make this recommendation to Congress. This is the kind of paternalism I believe in."

Mr. Lane has already given an illustration of what he means by applying common sense to his problems — of "sit-

ting around a table and talking things over." Immediately on taking office he found a "situation" in the Reclamation Service. In many ways this is one of the most splendid activities of the Government. For ten years the United States has been engaging in the business of reclaiming arid soil. It has advanced the money for these projects — derived from the sale of public lands; built storage reservoirs which, such as the Roosevelt and the Shoshone dams, are among the

MR. LANE AS A SAILOR
YACHTING IS HIS FAVORITE RECREATION

world's most magnificent engineering feats. According to the financial scheme laid down by Congress, actual settlers on the reclaimed lands are to pay back the cost of these improvements in a series of annual instalments. So far the Reclamation Service has spent $70,000,000 on these works; settlers have moved upon them in large numbers; and the time has arrived to begin paying back the money. But all kinds of trouble has been brewing among the settlers. A committee of Congress has investigated the Reclamation Service, and submitted a report of 700 pages, containing a large assortment of serious charges. It has been extravagant, its work badly done, the interests of settlers have been ignored in favor of land speculators — so run the accusations. When Mr. Lane took office, he found his desk piled high with letters, telegrams, petitions, and newspaper clippings — all ostensibly appeals from water-users for decent treatment. "Guess this is one of the things we will have to talk over," said Mr. Lane. He sent letters to the complainants inviting them to come to Washington for consultation. Representatives from all the reclamation projects in the United States presently swept down upon the Secretary. Mr. Lane held hearings all the afternoons and evenings for three weeks. Though the atmosphere was at high tension — people in debt $70,000,000 to the Government are inclined to take life seriously — Mr. Lane simply radiated benevolence. When he had finished he probably knew as much about all phases of reclamation as anyone in the United States.

"It's the old trouble," says Mr. Lane. "Our Reclamation Service contains great engineers, but they have failed on the human side. They did not realize that, primarily, these lands were being reclaimed for human occupation. They were interested chiefly in making wonderful dams and reservoirs — not in making the people industrious and contented. These things will have to be straightened out; what we need to do is to keep our tempers and use a little common sense. There may have been some extravagance — who can tell? But there has been no graft, and, on the whole, the Service has done a really inspiring piece of work. This Reclamation Service is the kind of thing I like to see the Government do. It is paternalistic in the best sense of the term; socialistic, if you will; an intelligent extension of governmental powers, I should call it. It is only one of the many things that the Government can do better than the people. There are those who think that the Federal Government cannot undertake business enterprises of this sort — I think it can.

This Reclamation Service illustrates my point. Our works are built and they are great and enduring; whereas many of the schemes of the kind that were undertaken by private capital have proved scandalous failures. I think the Federal Government has reached that stage of efficiency and honesty when it can undertake great enterprises."

There seems little likelihood that there will be any Ballinger troubles under the new Secretary. Mr. Lane and the President both realize, however, that the Department of the Interior is perhaps the most difficult problem that now confronts the Government. That Mr. Lane bears his burdens good-naturedly does not mean that he does not understand that, by one or two serious mistakes, he might easily wreck the Wilson Administration.

WITH MR. BURLESON AND MR. McADOO

"MR. LANE'S PREDOMINANT QUALITY IS SUPERABUNDANT GOOD NATURE. HIS GREATEST GIFT IS THE GIFT OF MAKING AND RETAINING FRIENDS"

WHAT THE I. W. W. IS

AN ABILITY TO ORGANIZE DISCONTENT, ESPECIALLY AMONG FOREIGN WORKERS—THE LIMITS OF ITS POWER

BY

ARNO DOSCH

WHAT is the organization that calls itself the Industrial Workers of the World? How powerful is it now? How powerful is it likely to become and what destruction can it do?

A study of the men who lead it and of their methods is an interesting sidelight on modern industry.

In the first place, where do the funds come from?

When the Industrial Workers of the World were planning to give a pageant of the Paterson silk strike at Madison Square Garden last June, it became necessary to raise three thousand dollars over-night. There was no money in sight and apparently no way of getting any. It seemed as if this spectacular demonstration would fail through lack of funds. But the New York silk workers, who were also on strike, went out into the neighborhoods in which they lived, borrowed twenty-seven hundred dollars within a few hours, and agreed to get as much more in three days if it were needed.

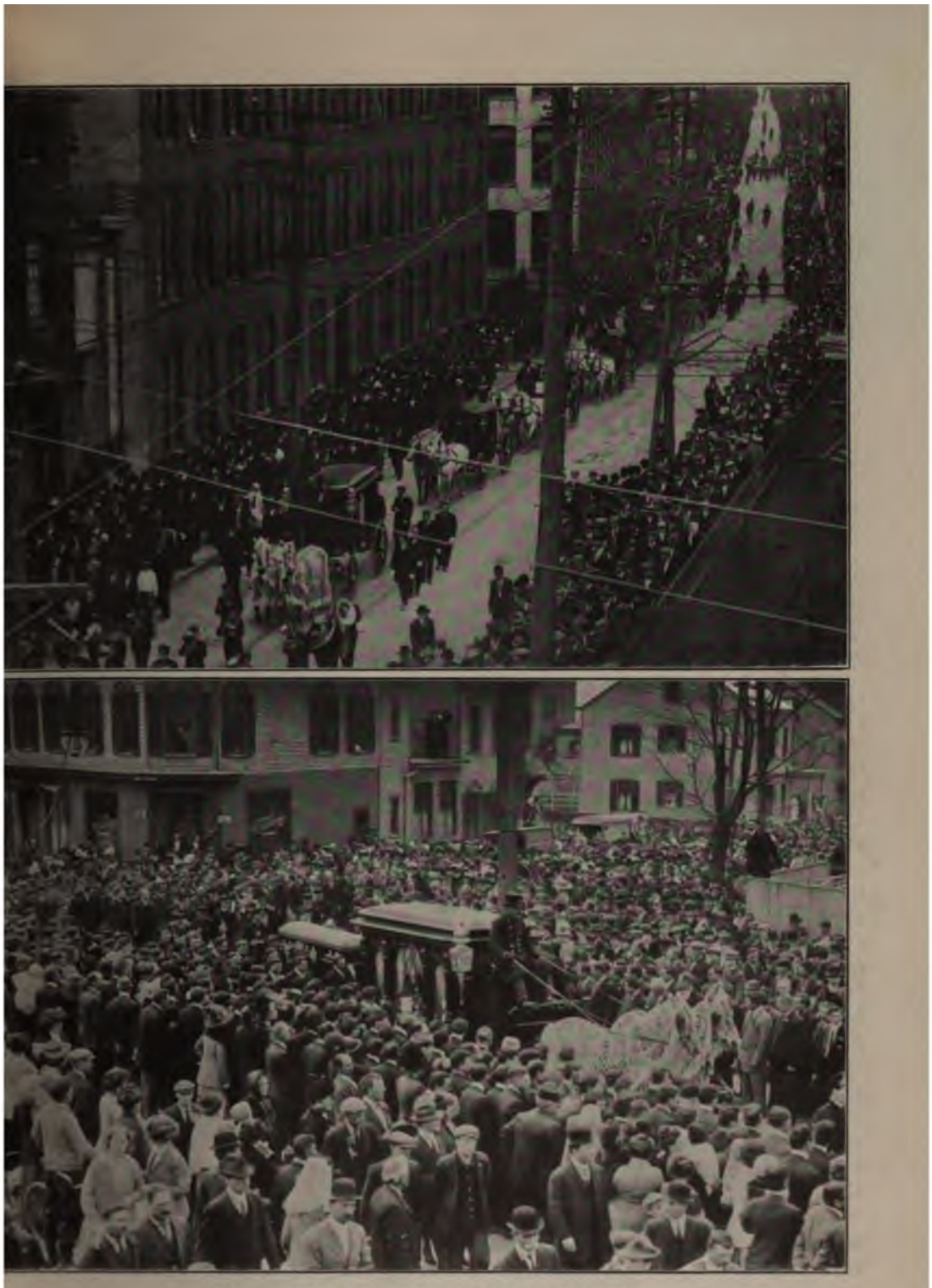
This ability to raise money on the spur of the moment is one of the most significant characteristics of the I. W. W. It shows a surprising latent vitality. Mr. William D. Haywood, its chief organizer, told me

SOLDIERS DISPERSING CROWDS AT LAWRENCE, MASS.

DURING THE GREAT TEXTILE STRIKE OF LAST YEAR, IN WHICH THE INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD FIRST APPEARED IN THE EASTERN STATES AS A VITAL FORCE IN THE LEADERSHIP OF LABOR, PARTICULARLY UNSKILLED LABOR OF FOREIGN ORIGIN

MEETINGS OF THE I. W. W. AT PATERSON, N. J.

DURING THE STRIKE OF THE SILK WORKERS THIS SUMMER. UPPER PICTURE: OPERATIVES GATHERED AT HALEDON, A SUBURB OF PATERSON, TO HEAR SPEECHES WITHOUT THE INTERFERENCE OF THE PUBLIC OFFICERS. LOWER PICTURE: MISS ELIZABETH GURLEY FLYNN, AN ORGANIZER OF THE I. W. W., ADDRESSING A CROWD OF STRIKERS



THE POWER OF PATHOS IN A STRIKE

ANTONIO VISCHIO, WHO WAS KILLED DURING A RIOT IN PATERSON, WAS NOT A STRIKER, UT THE LEADERS OF THE I. W. W. USED HIS FUNERAL TO MAKE A REMARKABLE DEMONSTRATION F THE STRIKING SILK WEAVERS, TWELVE THOUSAND OPERATIVES FOLLOWING THE HEARSE HROUGH THE CITY STREETS

THE PRINCIPAL LEADERS OF THE I. W. W.
FROM LEFT TO RIGHT: MR. PATRICK J. QUINLAN, MR. CARLO TRESCA, MISS ELIZABETH GURLEY FLYNN, MR. ADOLPH LESSIG, AND MR WILLIAM D. HAYWOOD.

that it had got money from members of regular labor unions when the unions themselves could not get it. It has no accumulated surplus to conduct strikes, nor can it levy on its members for large amounts, but it succeeds, nevertheless, in carrying on large operations and in paying its way as it goes, out of spontaneous contributions. The Paterson strike alone has cost at least $35,000, but the money has come in small gifts by working people, from collections at mass meetings, from benefit performances, and from occasional checks from well-to-do sympathizers. At Lawrence, Mass., the strike committee received from outside sources an average of more than a thousand dollars a day. Some days the contributions ran as high as three thousand dollars. The money came from labor unions, meetings of sympathy, Socialist clubs, and all sorts of unexpected sources.

MR. ARTURO GIOVANNITTI
A LEADER OF THE I. W. W. IN LAWRENCE

The I. W. W. can work in this way because it is not really an organization. It is a revolution. It has the mere skeleton of a framework on which to build. It consists chiefly in a small nucleus of agitators. It breaks out here and there, where industrial

ons are worst. So far it has made dway in orderly, settled manufac- communities where the work is done lled American workmen who live decent conditions. It has thrived discontent of overworked and aid foreign laborers.

as not even originated the most nt strikes with which it has been ed. At McKees Rocks, Pa., at ce, Mass., at Little Falls, N. Y., centres of the United States that they will be able to secure a large enough following to bring on a general strike and paralyze industry before they can be prevented. If this be true, it creates the most serious situation which American mill owners have ever faced.

The I. W. W. was born in the "bull-pens" of Colorado during the violent strikes and lock-outs in the long struggle between the Western Federation of Miners and the

"WE STRIKE WITH OUR HANDS IN OUR POCKETS"

WILLIAM D. HAYWOOD AND MR. JOSEPH J. ETTOR, WHO SAY: "WE HAVE A NEW KIND OF VIOLENCE, OC WE RAISE WITH MONEY BY LAYING DOWN OUR TOOLS. OUR STRENGTH LIES IN THE OVERWHELM- ER OF NUMBERS"

Paterson, N. J., where the four big- W. W. strikes in the eastern states ken place, the strikes had really be- ore the I. W. W. took an active part . Lawrence, in warning other cities the I. W. W., admitted that that ation did not take charge until the had already progressed three days. eaders of the I. W. W. say that there uch discontent with the hard con- of life in all the big industrial Mine Owners' Association. It grew up in bitter antagonism. The twenty-four men who met in Chicago in 1904 and there solemnly launched the movement had all been connected with prolonged labor troubles. They had been through war and their weapons were those of war. In their constitution's preamble they said:

The working class and the employing class have nothing in common. There can be no

A PARADE OF THE CHILDREN STRIKERS AT LAWRENCE, MASS.

peace as long as hunger and want are found among millions of working people, and the few who make up the employing class have all the good things of life.

That is still their slogan, though their methods have changed. All through its earlier agitations the I. W. W. pursued the methods of the Western Federation of Miners and went further in its demands. Its first strike, in Nevada, was really a mutiny. It consisted largely of "high-graders" in the mines, who justified their theft on the ground that they were doing the work and were entitled to all they could steal. The following year the I. W. W. organized a strike among

THE FOREMOST FOE OF THE I. W. W.

MR. SAMUEL GOMPERS, PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR, SPEAKING. THE FEDERATION REPRESENTS SKILLED LABOR AND THE PRINCIPLE OF COLLECTIVE BARGAINING WITH EMPLOYERS; THE I. W. W. REPRESENTS UNSKILLED LABOR AND THE DESIRE TO ELIMINATE THE EMPLOYING CLASS

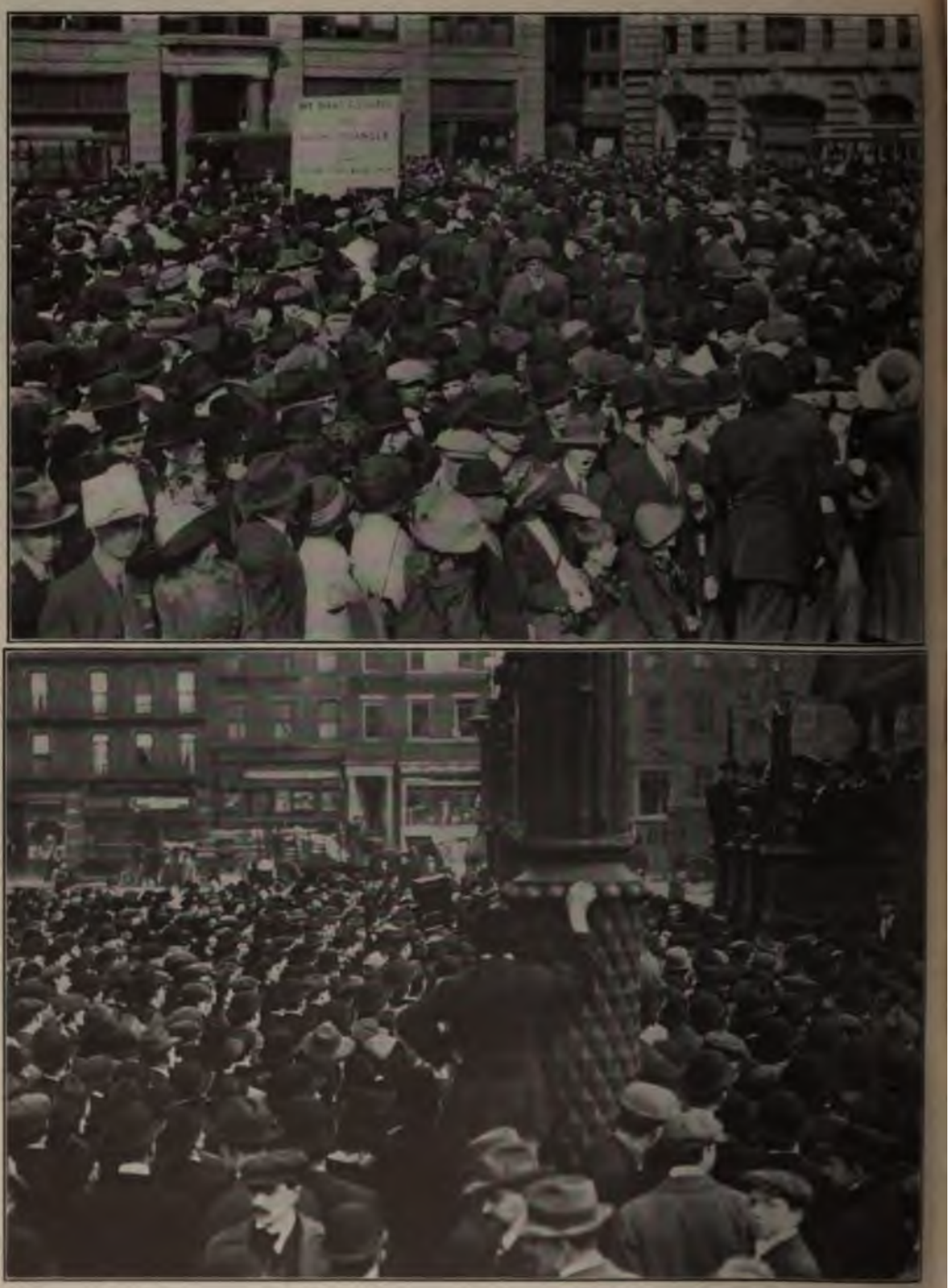
HILD-LABOR PARADE AT PATERSON, N. J., DURING THE SILK WEAVERS' STRIKE

umber-yard workers in Portland, men who were here to-day and to-morrow. They had no fixed se beyond their immediate ends. ailroad strikers in western Canada ged to the same type of "floating" ation. Any turn of fortune was certain to help them. None of these strikes would have received much attention if it had not been that the I. W. W. was (and is) an avowedly revolutionary movement.

This early history of the I. W. W. is separate from, and has very little in common with, its later history. It needs only

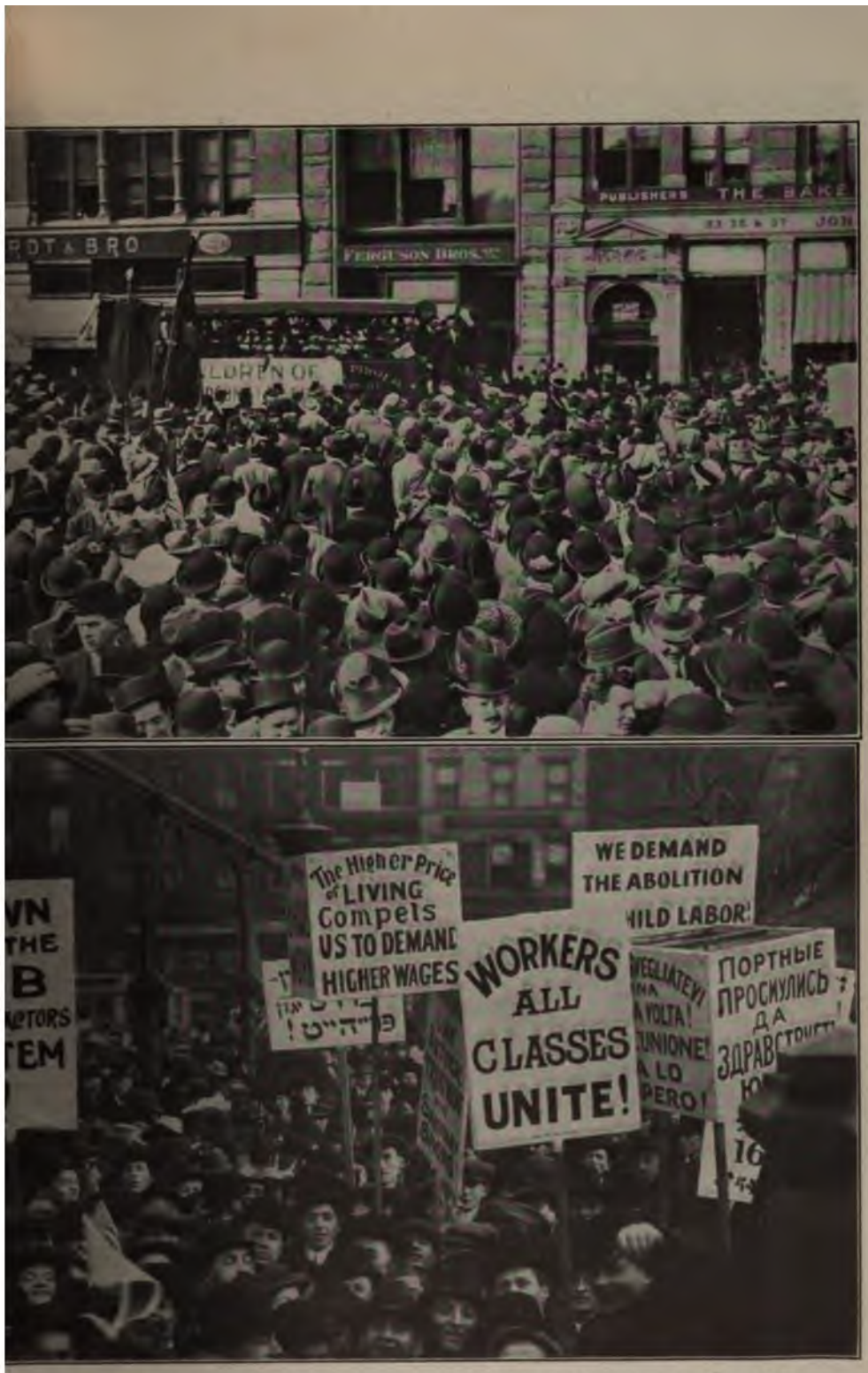
MR. HAYWOOD ON TRIAL FOR MURDER IN IDAHO

EN HE AND OTHER OFFICIALS OF THE WESTERN FEDERATION OF MINERS WERE CHARGED WITH COMPLICITY THE DEATH OF GOVERNOR STEUNENBERG. "THE I. W. W. WAS BORN IN THE 'BULL-PENS' OF COLORADO THE VIOLENT STRIKES OF THE WESTERN FEDERATION . . . BUT ITS METHODS HAVE CHANGED"



BIG STRIKE DEMONSTRATIONS, UNDER THE LEADERSHIP OF THE

THESE CROWDS OF WAISTMAKERS, DRESSMAKERS, GARMENT WORKERS, AND WAITERS ARE
ORGANIZERS OF THE I. W. W. HAVE



USTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD, IN UNION SQUARE, NEW YORK

CAL OF THE CLASS OF POORLY PAID EUROPEAN IMMIGRANT WORKERS AMONG WHOM THE THEIR REMARKABLE SUCCESS

WEAPONS OF THE LABOR WAR

SOME OF THE ARMS AND AMMUNITION THAT THE MILITIA CAPTURED FROM THE COAL MINE OPERATORS AND FROM THE COAL MINE STRIKERS IN WEST VIRGINIA, EVIDENCES OF THE FAILURE OF BOTH GOVERNMENT AND INDUSTRY TO SOLVE THE PROBLEMS OF AN INDUSTRIAL ERA

to be told about and then forgotten. For the I. W. W. did not come into real importance until it invaded the industrial districts in the eastern states. It found there deep-seated discontent, and it has spread like wildfire especially of late.

A MODERN SIEGE

ARMED GUARDS PROTECTING THE TERMINAL YARDS OF THE NEW YORK, SUSQUEHANNA & WESTERN RAILROAD, ACROSS THE HUDSON RIVER FROM NEW YORK, DURING A STRIKE LAST YEAR

Mr. Haywood, the organizer, explained its growth to me in this way:

Here lay a task to my hand. As soon as I looked over the depressing mill-towns and the vast, sordid cities, such as New York and Philadelphia, I knew where my work lay. Here were millions and millions of people working desperately and barely able to exist. All I needed was to stir those millions into a sense of their wrongs.

We have been working among them several years, and we have made ourselves feared. The mill-owners dread above all things an I. W. W. strike. Why? Because we can make a great mass of ignorant people hold together.

When machinery began to reach a stage thirty years ago that called for fewer skilled workers, the mill-owners congratulated themselves. They felt that they could afford to keep on good terms with what few skilled men they needed, because they could run their mills chiefly with unskilled labor, and no one had ever succeeded in organizing unskilled labor sufficiently to make it fight for a principle. Then they found that the peasants of Europe could run their looms and their foundries and could be had for less money than American workers. So they encouraged this immigration until now the industries of the United States are in the control of these laborers.

They have sown the whirlwind, and now they are getting their harvest. These foreign laborers have shown a real understanding of the principles of the Industrial Workers of the World. At McKees Rocks, speeches at the meetings had to be delivered in a dozen different languages, but, looking down on those faces from the platform, you could see the light of a new understanding dawn in them.

That is the secret of the I. W. W.'s success. Anyone can understand it. Our purpose is simple. We refuse to continue as labor slaves. We divide all the world into three parts: the capitalists, who are the employing class that makes money out of money; the skilled laborers; and the masses. The I. W. W. represents the masses. It tells them that they need not work for the capitalists any longer than they want to. All they have to do is to stop working and the capitalists will go bankrupt. Their hope rests in a general strike that will paralyze industry. When that day comes, control of industry will pass from the capitalists to the masses and capitalists will vanish from the face of the earth.

The only comment worth making on these remarks of Mr. Haywood's is this: Talk of that kind has won strikes for the I. W. W. It has kept on strike men of a type that had never been considered good strike material before.

Mr. Haywood spoke on frankly:

It will be revolution, but it will be bloodless revolution. The world is turning against war. People are sickened at the thought. Even labor wars of the old type are passing. I should never think of conducting a strike in the old way. There will never be another Cœur d'Alene, another Cripple Creek. I, for one, have turned my back on violence. It wins nothing. When we strike now, we strike with our hands in our pockets. We have a new kind of violence — the havoc we raise with money by laying down our tools. Our strength lies in the overwhelming power of numbers.

What Mr. Haywood says about violence is also borne out by the facts. The I. W. W. strikes in the Eastern states have been comparatively free from it. At McKees Rocks, where 8,000 men from every corner of Europe were on strike for eleven weeks, only one death could be laid to the strikers. At Lawrence, the I. W. W. stopped violence. At Paterson there has been relatively little, and the speakers at the mass meetings have been warned not to deliver incendiary addresses. As the Paterson strikers have been Italians, who have always carried knives, they have been repeatedly told to leave their knives at home.

One day in Paterson a group of private detectives tried to pick a quarrel with the crowd that was coming out of a mass meeting. They hurled every insult they could think of, but they got in return only smiles. And, mind you, the people whom they were insulting were mostly hot-blooded Italians. But they knew what they had at stake, and walked past with their hands in their pockets, smiling.

This attitude has made these new I. W. W. strikes unusual. They have an atmosphere different from other strikes. There is suppressed excitement in the air, as if it were the eve of a great day. The participants regard themselves not as strikers, but as revolutionists. They may be peaceful, but their spirit is that of rebellion. The ten thousand silk workers on strike in New York have not even done any picketing and not one of them has been arrested.

All they have done is to stay home, but they feel that they have taken an important revolutionary step.

You cannot call those ten thousand men anarchists, but their purpose is to bring about a state of anarchy. They display a red flag, but they shed no blood.

"All we need," said Mr. Fred Boyd, secretary of the New York strike committee, "is to have a million men led by fifty thousand who understand thoroughly what we want, and the general strike will be on. There will be no need to wait for some unusual injustice. Conditions are so bad for unskilled labor that there is always good reason for striking. And, when that million stop work, industry will be dead. Once dead, it will not be revived until a state of socialism takes the place of capitalism."

For five years now the doctrines I have been describing here have been spread among the five million foreign laborers in the United States. As yet a real understanding has reached comparatively few, but in every large industrial centre there is an I. W. W. nucleus ready to lead the first strike that arises. In Lawrence, before the strike, there were about 300 members of the local branch of the I. W. W., according to United States Labor Commissioner Neill, but within a week the I. W. W. was leading a strike of 23,000 people. In Akron, O., Mr. William D. Haywood and Miss Elizabeth Gurley Flynn made a short campaign and left behind them a group of twenty-five followers. A year later the I. W. W. was leading a strike in the rubber industry in Akron with 7,000 men.

With examples like these before them, it is no wonder that the I. W. W. leaders are confident that they can bring about a general strike within a short time. They have already announced a strike of two hundred thousand steel workers, and if they were to succeed they would deal a severe blow to all allied industries.

The efforts that have been made by employers and by governmental authorities to repress the movement have been worse than useless. Every move that has *been made* against the I. W. W. has had *the effect of* winning sympathy. The Lawrence strike would never have become a national event if it had not been for the attempt to prevent the sending away of the children. The trial of the three agitators, Mr. Ettor, Mr. Giovannitti, and Mr. Caruso, for the murder of a woman whose death was indirectly due to the strike, was a tactical error. Mr. Ettor won the support of millions of people when he said, "I have been tried here not for my acts, but for my views." The Paterson strike received new life when the agitator, Mr. Patrick J. Quinlan, was convicted of inciting the strikers to riot. It brought a check for five hundred dollars from Mr. Amos Pinchot and a letter denouncing his trial as unjust and un-American. This letter was printed in newspapers throughout the United States. At San Diego, so much violence was used against I. W. W. leaders that Governor Johnson, of California, sent Attorney-General Webb to see justice done.

The Industrial Workers of the World ask nothing more than to have this keep up. It can be said, then, that employers have done nothing effective as yet to check the I. W. W., and local authorities have fostered it. But it has one persistent enemy, the American Federation of Labor. This organization has discovered that its power over the labor market is being threatened by the I. W. W., and it is taking active measures to prevent the I. W. W. from making further inroads. The struggles lie between the two. The American Federation of Labor enters the contest with 1,750,000 members, a standing army of unionism. It confronts a vast revolutionary horde.

Organized labor first realized the possibilities of the I. W. W. when the time came to make the latest agreement with the anthracite coal operators. It found miners less docile to leadership than they had been, and it traced this restiveness to the activities of I. W. W. agitators. There was no attempt on the part of the leaders of the I. W. W. to conceal its activities, and they openly boasted that they forced the unions to stand out for better terms on pain of giving the I. W. W. a foothold in the mining regions.

There is a fundamental hostility between

zed labor and the I. W. W. The
; organize according to trades, and
their lines jealously distinct. The
W. draws no lines. It organizes
ling to nationality merely for con-
ıce. Organized labor also makes
contracts. These the I. W. W.
. It holds that the employer is an
' and it will not deal with him on
ıther basis. One of the sharpest
; in the side of the I. W. W. is the
ol under which the United Hebrew
; in New York work successfully
e various clothing trades. This
ol, which brought about an actual
standing and feeling of common
st between employers and workers,
to contentment. The I. W. W.
s any contentment short of the
ıg of the masses.
: contest between these opposing
has been on now for about eight
The earliest skirmish occurred in
lelphia, where the first I. W. W.
s to come East attempted to bring
a strike of unskilled labor. The
can Federation of Labor heard of it
vas able to prevent it. A similar
ion arose in a strike at the tube
in Bridgeport, Conn., the following
and organized labor won again.
' months later, I. W. W. agitators
to take charge of a silk strike at
ster, Pa., and were unsuccessful.
five years after that the I. W. W.
little progress in the East. Not
ts few members at Lawrence secured
adership of the textile strike in 1912
assume real prominence in the labor
It gained ascendancy there be-
, of more than thirty thousand
rs, only twenty-five hundred were
ers of the United Textile Workers.
were the skilled workers. They
ess than one out of twelve. All the
ocked to the I. W. W. banner. It
so not forgotten later that the unions
villing to settle for a 5 per cent. raise
ıe I. W. W. stood out for 15 per cent.
cale of increase of from 5 to 26 per
in wages was an acknowledged
W. victory.
: effect of this was shown a few
ıs later when the strike at Little
Falls, N. Y., occurred, and the I. W. W. again prevented the American Federation of Labor from gaining the leadership. At the time this is being written the American Federation of Labor organizers are active in Paterson, but reports say that they have made small headway against the I. W. W.

These last three strikes show that the American Federation of Labor cannot hold foreign unskilled laborers against the alluring prospect held out by the I. W. W. The American Federation of Labor can only tell them that it will get them a small increase in wages and possibly union recognition. The I. W. W. promises a big increase in wages right away, another big increase very soon, and continued increases until ownership of the mills passes from the capitalists to the people. It is easy to see that the unskilled laborers will follow the I. W. W. banner.

"What could the manufacturers do to prevent the growth of the I. W. W.?" I asked Mr. Haywood, the principal leader of the whole movement.

"They can't stop it," he replied, doggedly.

"But suppose they made conditions so good in the mills and banded together in philanthropic organizations that made the towns so livable that the workers became happy and satisfied?"

Mr Haywood looked at me with an ironical smile, as much as to say, "Dreamer of dreams." After a minute he replied:

"It is too late now. We have them frightened, and we know it. Any move they make to do what in common humanity they ought to have done long ago will be immediately recognized as a sop to keep their workers quiet."

But Mr. Haywood forgets that he is dealing with ignorant men and women who have so far only had the seeds of revolution sown among them. The great body of unskilled labor has not yet heard of the general strike. The I. W. W. strikes that have so far occurred have been for particular ends, and have been brought about by particular acts of injustice. At Lawrence it was never even established that there was a deliberate effort to get more work for less pay out of the factory operatives, but the suspicion was enough

in an industry where, as Labor Commissioner Neill reported, it was necessary for the father and mother and three or more grown sons and daughters to work in the mills and pool their pay to live in even moderate comfort. In Paterson the strike was caused by at least a seeming doubling of work without increase in pay.

It is beyond question that manufacturers can go a long way to prevent the activities of the I. W. W. by such work as the survey that was conducted by the United States Steel Corporation. If the mill owners in every manufacturing community were to make a private survey of living conditions and set themselves seriously about the business of making the mill workers happy and satisfied, they would find it a good investment. The largest obstacle in the way of such a movement is absentee ownership. Some of the largest stockholders in the Paterson mills are Japanese who live in Japan. Not a single large stockholder in any of the Lawrence textile mills lives in Lawrence. This condition is true of mill-ownership in general. The stockholders know little or nothing about conditions, and the active management is concerned only with immediate results.

Now a different attitude is being forced on mill-owners. They find it necessary to look ahead and to see what is coming. They are beginning to realize that contented workers who receive a living wage do not lend a ready ear to agitation. The I. W. W. has never yet been able to get their attention. It tried to conduct a strike among the textile workers of New Bedford, but it failed because the workers were not desperate. They worked hard and for small pay, but they did not feel that they were being treated unjustly and they were not ready for revolution. They had something to lose. The I. W. W. is an ability to organize discontent; where there is no serious discontent it cannot operate.

NEW LIGHT ON CANCER

THE BELIEF OF SCIENCE IN THE ULTIMATE CONQUEST OF THE DISEASE IN SPITE OF THE DISAPPOINTMENTS OF SEVERAL RECENT "CURES"— MANY SUBSTANCES THAT PRODUCE TEMPORARY RESULTS AND SO AROUSE FALSE HOPES — THE LATEST INVESTIGATIONS OF THE CAUSE OF CANCER

BY

JAMES MIDDLETON

THREE years ago Dr. Eugene Hodenpyl, at that time pathologist in the Roosevelt Hospital, New York City, created a medical sensation by discovering what was apparently a cure for cancer. A woman who had suffered for many years from malignant tumors of the most terrible virulence came under his observation. The disease, which had originally developed in the mammary gland, had "metastasized,"— that is, had become general throughout the system — so that, in addition to the original cancer, secondary growths had appeared upon the neck and upon the liver, which had increased so in *size that it filled* practically the entire abdominal cavity. Several radical operations had failed to check even slightly the progress of the disease, and the patient, the wife of a prominent New York physician, had been condemned to an early death.

And now, after the surgeons and specialists had abandoned this case, the strangest things began to happen. The attending nurses at first observed a change in the appearance of the tumors. They could hardly trust the evidence of their own senses, but the miraculous fact soon became undeniable; the growths were becoming smaller day by day. In a few months the original cancer on the breast entirely disappeared; the secondary growth in the neck gave place to clear, smooth,

al skin; the diseased liver resumed atural size. In connection with the pearance of the cancers, however, pathological conditions appeared. her disease, popularly known as psy," developed. The entire peri- l cavity several times filled with and demanded repeated "tapping." ently this unfortunate woman had ed one dreadful malady only im- ately to fall a victim to another.

any medical men investigated the case, shook their heads — it was too deep hem. It seemed to occur to no one, t Dr. Hodenpyl, to make certain ly indicated experiments. Was there connection, he asked himself, between ppearance of the dropsical fluid and disappearance of the cancers? Did luid, popularly known as "water" (in y the serum of the blood), contain roperties antagonistic to cancer—that d cure the disease? Had this fluid destroyed the malignant growths is woman's body? Could it be in- d into the bodies of other cancerous nts and effect similar cures?

. Hodenpyl obtained, by a series of pings," several barrels of this dropsi- uid and began his experiments. He ted it first into several white mice in inal stages of cancer. Their tumors peared like magic in five or six days! e course of the next few months, Dr. npyl injected the same fluid into -seven human beings — all suffering advanced cases of the disease. Per- ble effects immediately followed. The rs became red and soft, and began to smaller. The tumor tissue died and absorbed or thrown off from the body. venty-five cases of the forty-seven the ers entirely vanished.

. Hodenpyl had apparently made the test medical discovery since Sir William er's work on vaccination. He had mplished the one incredible feat of cine — he had cured inoperable cases ancer, not in one human being, but venty-five! One can hardly exagger- the feverish excitement which his riments caused in the medical circles ew York. The news rapidly spread ver the civilized world. I well re- member meeting Dr. Hodenpyl in the spring of 1910, when his experiments had attained what seemed complete success. He was in a high state of emotional excitement, almost bordering on hysteria. Great as seemed his achievement, his position was an extremely pathetic one. His fluid apparently cured inoperable cancer; but he had only a limited quantity, which had been taken from the body of one woman. When this woman died, as she must very soon from her dropsical malady, where was he to obtain more? The scientific spirit demanded that he use this elixir of life for experimental purposes, selecting his cases, keeping everything under strict observation, not once letting it get beyond his control. Yet it seemed as though every person in America and Europe who was suffering from cancer — and half as many die from this disease as from tuberculosis — was making frantic appeals for help. Dr. Hodenpyl's daily mail was mountainous; so many men and women flooded his office that he could get little time to work. Mr. James Bryce, the British Ambassador, attempted to get a supply of the fluid for a sick English friend; the Russian Ambassador made a personal appeal for a woman of high rank in St. Petersburg. One of the greatest Wall Street financiers once burst into Dr. Hodenpyl's office. His wife, he declared, was a terrible sufferer; he quietly sat down and informed the physician that he would not leave the room until he had received fluid enough to cure her. "I will have it," he told Dr. Hodenpyl, "if it costs me a million dollars." The man was accustomed merely to nod and be obeyed; Dr. Hodenpyl, however, proved adamant.

A month or two after my meeting with Dr. Hodenpyl, however, the situation changed. The tumors which had softened and retrogressed began to show new signs of life. The patients whose cancerous growths had entirely disappeared now noticed that small nodules on the same sites were appearing again. Another circumstance deepened the tragedy: the recurring cancers developed more rapidly and more malignantly than the original growths. Even the patient from whom the fluid had been obtained, it presently

appeared, had not been really cured; her tumors reappeared and finally killed her. Probably medical history contains no disappointment so bitter and heartrending as this. Dr. Hodenpyl, half crazed by anxiety, by overwork, by loss of sleep, by the constant demands made upon his sympathy, and by chagrin and agony over the final failure, took to his bed and was dead in a few days. He unquestionably died of a broken heart.

Many before Dr. Hodenpyl, however, had found the "cure" for cancer, with similar results. Six or seven years ago Dr. Beard, of Edinburgh, rushed into print with his celebrated trypsin cure. There was nothing reprehensible or unprofessional about Dr. Hodenpyl's conduct; he behaved, through the whole experience, like a true scientist; the same cannot be said for Dr. Beard. He had injected trypsin — the digestive ferment secreted by the pancreas — into two cancerous mice. These two mice both died, but their tumors, said Dr. Beard, had retrogressed. On the basis of these experiments — experiments which had not the slightest scientific significance — and of a few more or less "favorable" results with human beings, Dr. Beard, through Dr. Charles W. Saleeby, encouraged the world to believe that he had found a cure for cancer.

A few months ago Dr. Leo Loeb, one of the pioneer cancer investigators in the United States — a man who had done really substantial work — published the results of his experiments with colloidal copper. The injection of this metal produced what were apparently remarkable effects on cancerous growths. They became inflamed, softened, and in many cases perceptibly retrogressed. As Dr. Loeb is a thoroughly scientific man, and completely acquainted with his subject, his publication, which naturally raised utterly unfounded hopes in thousands of cancer patients, has caused considerable consternation. Several French investigators, notably Dr. J. Gaube de Gers, of Paris, had experimented with colloidal copper and found it practically useless. It affected the tumors at first, in some cases caused them to retrogress, but the results proved *only temporary.* When the growths recurred, as they did in all cases, they played a renewed virulence. Accordi Dr. Loeb's latest communications, hi periments with colloidal copper, whi first promised well, have had a simila

One can hardly take up a news to-day, especially a Sunday edition, out finding a new cancer "cure." publications do an infinite amount of They not only raise false hopes a bring medical science into disreput they may cause the needless sacri human lives. As every well-inf doctor will tell you, there is onl possible treatment for the disease. in its early stage can, in many ca permanently cured by an operation cently, Dr. William J. Mayo, of Roc Minn., announced remarkable res the cure, by operation, of even so d a disease as cancer of the stomach. is the only escape which medical now presents. The constant publ of "cures" leads many people, still operable stage, to delay this drastic ment until it is too late. For this such publications are a real affir evil that should be stopped.

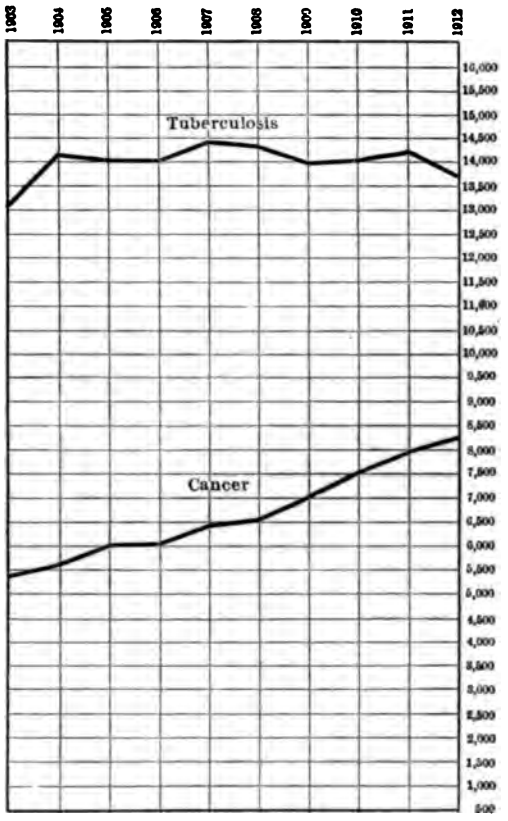
However, many such cancer " have been announced in the past, a doubt many will appear in the f The story of Dr. Hodenpyl show conservatively we must receive From its very nature cancer lends to delusions of this kind. It is th o'-the-wisp of medicine; it lead patient investigator on step by step stantly making him believe that h found the secret, only to overwhelr finally with despair. Of all medic vestigators none are subject to su of gloom and pessimism as those wh devoting their lives to this disease. at this time, it is worth while to sh scientific grounds, why cancer inv tors, even the most conscientiou deluded into believing that they have the cure for the disease.

One might suppose, from what ha said above, that science had made progress in the study of malignant tu But in the last ten years it has take mendous strides. We have learned about cancer in the last six years th

eding six thousand. In a recent made in the United States, Prof. rlich, of Frankfort — probably d's greatest living medical scien- clared that the beginning of the he cancer problem was in sight. timate conquest of the disease," , "is as inevitable as was the taking Arthur after the Japanese had the first trench."

cientific study of cancer began n years ago, when several investi- iere and in Europe, succeeded in y inducing these growths upon mice. Mice, because they could ned readily and cheaply in large , and were easily taken care of, to cancer research what the test o regular bacterial diseases. The ries began using these little ani- the thousand. The investigators he market for mice with naturally tumors; these growths they in minute sections and injected thy mice. From the beginning, the implanted tumors began to noteworthy eccentricities. The jority of mice proved absolutely to the disease. Of one hundred culated, only two or three con- cancer. Dr. Harvey R. Gaylord G. H. A. Clowes, at the Buffalo y for cancer research, soon dis- an even more remarkable fact. und that 20 per cent. of their s mice spontaneously recovered e disease. An inoculated cancer levelop for a particular time, p growing and retrogress. In eeks a smooth and glossy sur- istinguishable from the rest of al's body, would replace the area ie tumor had formerly covered. ontaneously-recovered mice never veloped the disease. Moreover, rimenters could not make cancer them again; repeated inoculations, heavy doses, failed to induce a e of the growth.

observations constitute the great- e discovery made in cancer re- Their significance is at once . They mean that cancer is not ly an incurable disease. In the laboratories hundreds of mice developed it and yet spontaneously got well. Necessarily the question arose, did human beings ever similarly recover? The verdict of investigators was that they certainly did. These experiments cleared up a medical mystery of many years' standing — that of "spontaneous" cures of human cancer. At intervals records of the disappearance



THE REMARKABLE INCREASE IN CANCER

THIS DIAGRAM SHOWS THE NUMBER OF DEATHS YEARLY FOR THE LAST TEN YEARS FROM TUBERCULOSIS AND FROM CANCER IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK, AND ILLUSTRATES THE UNIVERSALLY OBSERVED FACT THAT TUBERCULOSIS IS VERY GRADUALLY DIMINISHING, WHEREAS CANCER IS RAPIDLY INCREASING, IN PREVALENCE

of malignant tumors in human beings have found their way into medical literature. Before the Gaylord and Clowes experiments, however, science had always ridiculed these stories. Now the investigators saw that many of these reported cures were genuine. They are extremely rare — infinitely rarer among human beings than among mice; but now and then they do take

place. Especially significant was the discovery that the small tumors were the ones that showed the greatest tendency to disappear. It is not unlikely that many of us have been afflicted with minute tumors without knowing anything about it. Particularly would this be the case if they assailed interior parts of the body, as they so frequently do.

The investigators now found that many substances, injected into cancerous mice, had a remarkable influence upon their tumors. Some substances would make them grow faster; others would cause them to retrogress. Dr. Clowes, of the Buffalo laboratory, showed that the several chemical substances belonging to the tetrabrom creosol group had a considerable inhibiting effect. Dr. Wasserman, in Germany, demonstrated that selenium-eosin made the tumors break down and grow smaller — entirely disappear. Finally, Dr. Neuberg and Dr. Caspari proved that nearly all metals in organic compounds would produce the same results. Merely the injection of salt solutions, in some cases, had a curative effect. One investigator inoculated cancer tissue from a human patient into a rat; the tumors on the rat became smaller. Perhaps the most remarkable result was obtained by Professor Ehrlich. He attempted to treat cancerous mice by a process that was essentially vaccination. He inoculated his little patients with a very weak strain of cancer tissue. At regular intervals he made other inoculations, each time increasing the virulence of his strain. As a result the mice, in some cases, entirely recovered — in others they did not. It was comparatively simple, Professor Ehrlich found, to vaccinate healthy mice and in this way make them immune to cancer.

Could similar results be obtained on human beings? In some cases, yes. Several chemicals and foreign substances have been found that check the growth of cancer — at least temporarily. Thyroid extract occasionally works the miracle. The late Dr. Bull, the famous New York surgeon, was troubled for several years by a malignant growth on the neck. Thyroid extract brought about a retro-
ession. Dr. Bull, however, subsequently died of the disease. If the inve could experiment with human b freely as they do with mice, the probably accomplish similar result injecting these foreign substan mice, however, they can afford chances; their doses are so enorm they always kill about as many cure. Obviously they cannot trea beings in this way. If Ehrlich's tion procedure could be adopted and women, many of us could be immune to cancer. So large a pe of vaccinated mice die as a resu vaccination, however, that the p in its present state of developme likely to become general.

American science, however, remarkable cure of this kind to it Several years ago a boy suffering enormous malignant tumor on appeared at the Buffalo institu case was inoperable; under tl favorable circumstances the patie live only a few months. As the p could take chances in a case of they decided to try vaccinatio injected into the boy generous from the tumor of a rat. The softened, retrogressed, died, a finally absorbed. This happen years ago, and, so far, there has recurrence.

The experienced scientists wh these results, however, do no advertise them as "cures" fo Dr. Gaylord, for example, who this boy to health, does not rega nation with rat sarcoma as a treatment in human cancer. He this result only once; he has same thing repeatedly in oth and has failed. The numero tigators who have restored mice to health, temporarily an nently, do not pretend that cure human beings. These w phenomena, however, explain t day newspaper announcements cures. Most of the "discoverer they are not dishonest, are am cancer experimentation and do how to interpret their facts. An of some metallic substance, or

produces a retrogression; they jump to the conclusion that they have found the answer to the riddle. They do not know, or close their eyes to the fact, that any number of substances will accomplish the same results. Their tumors, after a period of retrogression, spring into life again. In a rare case, as with Dr. Gaylord and his boy patient, there may be an actual cure; the treatment, however, never proves generally useful. These circumstances particularly explain how easily experimenters who work with mice may be misled. The fact that a mouse tumor disappears has absolutely no significance; as I have already said, 20 per cent. of cancerous laboratory mice recover of their own accord. These results, however, have the greatest scientific value.

And these experiments give some idea of the new facts which the scientific world is accumulating concerning cancer. Laboratory investigation at present, however, centres not so much on elaborating a cure for cancer as in finding its cause. Once this cause is discovered, the workers believe the cure, so hopefully foretold by Ehrlich, will soon follow as a matter of course. For the last ten years the scientific world has been divided into two camps on this great question of causation. One camp has argued fiercely for the microbe theory; the other has as fiercely fought against it. At times the dispute has passed the bounds of scientific propriety and has taken on a personal bias.

Is a transmissible germ the cause of cancer? Properly to approach this question we must have some idea as to what cancer is. In its external manifestation, a malignant tumor is merely the growth of tissue. For some mysterious reason a particular part of the body — almost any part — begins to grow and ultimately forms a large shapeless mass. In itself, so far as science has discovered, there is nothing in this growth that suggests a specific disease. It contains nothing inherently destructive to human life. The cancerous tissue, placed under the microscope, is not different from normal tissue. In its earlier stages this growth causes no pain or sensation — this is especially unfortunate, for, otherwise, the disease, which so commonly attacks internal organs, would be more easily discovered. Indeed, the popular mind exaggerates the pain of cancer even in its final stages; the cancerous mice in laboratories, for example, even when afflicted with abnormal growths as large as themselves, seldom give any signs of suffering. The terrible thing about cancer is this unlimited power of growth. The human body may be compared with an orderly constructed house. It is built of an infinity of minute subdivisions of protoplasm known as cells, just as a house is built of bricks. Each one has its appointed place and its appointed duty. Some mysterious law of growth keeps the various parts of the body in equilibrium — the nose, for example, grows to a certain size and then stops — just as certain natural laws keep in place every brick in a well proportioned building. Suppose, now, through some mysterious freak, in defiance of all known laws, the bricks on a house should start reproducing themselves. A great bunch grows out at the second story, the chimney spreads itself in all directions, the cellar sprouts up on all sides, from one wall a mass grows inward and fills an entire room. We should certainly stand aghast and wonder what remarkable unknown natural laws could produce such weird results. If we should place the tumorous bricks under the microscope, and discover that they differed in no way from the original bricks, the mystery would certainly deepen. That is precisely what takes place when a cancerous growth attacks the human body. All that we can say is that certain cells, anarchistic in their nature, defy all the laws that regulate growth and start off on a wild, independent, crazy existence of their own. When they attack and sometimes fill up a part of the body, such as the stomach, indispensable to existence, death soon follows. What more frequently kills, however, is not the cancer itself, but intercurrent disease, including blood poisoning. When the tumor ulcerates, all kinds of poisonous organisms develop in it, as they do in any other open wound, and find their way into the general circulation.

Now the cancer problem is simply this: what force gives these cells this fearful

power of growth? The men who deny the possibility of a germ have elaborated many ingenious theories, all which are too technical for description in this place. They generally fall back, however, upon the statement that cancer, as observed in laboratories, possesses no traits in common with any known bacterial disease. In the first place, it is not contagious. Any one can associate indefinitely with cancer patients and not "catch" it. Cancer "epidemics" are unknown. This school of scientists, however, has rested its case chiefly upon the phenomena of transplantation. As already described, cancer can be communicated from mouse to mouse by transplanting a piece of cancer tissue. But it is only when the cell itself is transplanted, declare the anti-germ investigators, that cancer is obtained. Moreover, this transplantation can be made only from one animal to an animal of the same species. A mouse cancer will grow upon another mouse, but not upon a guinea pig, a dog, or a man. But tuberculosis or diphtheria can readily be communicated from one animal to an animal of an entirely different species — for example, from a man to a guinea pig.

On the other hand, the upholders of the microbe theory, of whom the leaders are Dr. Borrel, of the Pasteur Institute, and Dr. Gaylord, of the Gratwick Laboratory of Buffalo, can make out an excellent case. There is only one process known in Nature, they declare, that is comparable with the unlimited growth of the cancer cell, and that is the growth of micro-organisms. The cancer cell, they add, behaves exactly like a micro-organism. For example, it develops increased virulence as it is passed through different animals, just as a microbe does. A typhoid culture, injected into a guinea pig, grows slowly; taken from this guinea pig and injected into another, it grows more rapidly; and so on indefinitely. A cancer cell obeys this same law. An especially powerful argument is the fact that the body develops an immunity against cancer, just as it does against scarlet fever and measles. The mice that have spontaneously recovered from cancer do not have it again. Certainly this, as *well as the possibility* of vaccinating against malignant growths, suggests the presence of an organism. The anti-germ critics have always had one ready taunt: "If you think a microbe causes cancer, why don't you produce the microbe?" No cancer-producing organism has ever been found. This, however, has no practical significance in the argument. No one denies that smallpox, scarlet fever, and measles are infectious diseases — they are about the most infectious known — and yet the microbes of these diseases have never been found. The reason is plain: they are so ultra-minute that there is no microscope powerful enough to disclose them. "That is the reason," say Dr. Borrel and Dr. Gaylord, "that we can't find the cancer germ. But that doesn't prove its non-existence. We are in the position of the astronomer who knows by the behavior of a particular part of the heavens that a new planet is somewhere about. But he can't see it, simply because he hasn't a strong enough telescope."

At this point, however, the anti-microbe men have had rather the better of the argument. Smallpox and scarlet fever, they say, are unquestionably caused by micro-organisms — notwithstanding that these micro-organisms have never been found. They know this because they can produce the infections by what is technically known as a "filterable agent." They take a section of tissue from a sick patient — such as the "peelings" from a scarlet fever patient or an extract from the pustules in smallpox — make an emulsion of it, and cause it to pass through a Berkfeld filter. This filter is so fine that cells and tissue cannot pass through it; what comes out is a clear, watery fluid. This fluid, injected into a human being, will immediately cause the disease. There are about twenty infections produced by these so-called "filterable agents." The germ that causes infantile paralysis, just discovered by Dr. Simon Flexner and Dr. Hideyo Noguchi, of the Rockefeller Institute, is one of them. "Now if you think cancer is caused by a filterable agent," said the anti-microbe men, "just go and produce it in this way." Only the cancer cell could produce cancer. A clear filtrate, free of cells, such as was

ned in the smallpox experiments, · transmitted the disease.
f you once produce cancer without the was the conclusion of the opposition, shall believe in the germ theory."
d for several years the other side could neet the challenge.
d now cancer again showed what an mely queer and unreliable process it

The laboratory workers who strug- so many years to transmit the disease ɔut the cell — with a "cell-free fil- ," to use the technical description — ed exclusively with rats and mice. about three years ago Dr. Peyton , of the Rockefeller Institute, ob- d possession of a Plymouth Rock hen was suffering from a large sarcoma — .rticularly virulent type of tumor. · experimenting for some t me, it ·red to him to attempt once more the less experiment of obtaining cancer ɔut the cancer cell. He made his sion, passed it through a Berkfeld , and obtained a fluid free of cells. ıake sure that no tissue survived, he ıitted the product to various proced- any one of which, such as freezing and ıing, would have killed it. He then ted his "cell-free filtrate" into other ıouth Rock chickens; and, greatly s surprise and bewilderment, the in- .ted animals developed malignant tumors! He injected it into mice and rats; no tumors resulted. But the extract would communicate cancer to chickens. Experimenters with rats and mice, thinking there may have been some mistake in their technique, tried all their old experiments again — without result. Only the cell communicates cancer from mouse to mouse; but a fluid free from cells transmits it in chickens. In other words, the laws that apply to the disease in one animal apparently do not apply to it in another.

The scientific world has not yet digested this momentous discovery. It may mean that there is no such disease as cancer; that each kind of the many malignant growths grouped under that name has a separate cause. One distinct organism may cause cancer of the mouse, another cancer of the chicken, and still another of the human being; again, a different agent may cause each different type of cancer in each species.

Far from clearing up the cancer problem, Dr. Rous's work has made it still more obscure. Practically, however, it has not affected present clinical methods of treatment. The only cure is still operation in the early stage. Nor should any one assume, from these researches, that human cancer is contagious. The experience of centuries shows that there is no danger in associating with cancer patients.

WILLARD, OF THE B. & O.

ıACK LABORER FROM VERMONT, WHO EARNED A RAILROAD PRESIDENCY, NOW AN UNOFFICIAL STATESMAN WITH A DIPLOMATIC MISSION FROM THE AMERICAN RAILROADS TO THE AMERICAN PEOPLE — THE SIZE OF THE JOB AND THE MANNER OF THE MAN

BY

C. M. KEYS

ABOUT thirty-four years ago, the Central Vermont Railroad hired a day laborer to work on its tracks. He was only a boy of eighteen, and ıry does not record how little his ːs were. He lived at the village of North Hartland, Vt., where he was born. The year before, he had finished a short course in the high school at Windsor, Vt. — and that was as far as the family funds would carry him.

His name was — and is — Dan Willard. They call him Daniel in the executive

offices and in the newspapers, but they still call him Dan on the railroads where he works and has worked.

The job on the Vermont Central turned into a job firing a locomotive on the old Passumpsic Road, in New England. That naturally led to the job of engineer on the same road. A journey farther from home took young Willard to the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern, and he ran an engine on that road for about two years. Then he went to the old Soo Line, properly called the Minneapolis, St. Paul and Sault Ste. Marie, in 1884, as a brakeman. The next year he went back to Vermont long enough to marry. He took his wife to the West and went seriously to work to win his way up the long and treacherous railroad ladder.

Progress from the bottom up in the railroad service is no round of pleasures. In time the road made him conductor, then roundhouse foreman, then engineer, then trainmaster, then — a great step — assistant superintendent, and finally a superintendent of a division. It sounds easy enough, but it took fifteen years. Mr. Willard started it at twenty-three and finished it at thirty-eight.

A workingman's life is two thirds work and one third luck. Mr. Willard has both. His natural aptitude brought him into close enough contact with hard labor; but Mr. Frederick D. Underwood, now president of the Erie Railroad, brought him the necessary element of luck.

In 1886, Mr. Underwood came to the Soo Line. He had just finished serving sixteen years with the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul. He had been a little bit of everything on that road. The records show him clerk, brakeman, foreman of elevators, conductor, yardmaster, assistant superintendent, and superintendent of a division. In June, 1886, he came to the Soo Line as a superintendent of construction on a division; and in September they made him general manager, just a year after Mr. Willard had joined it as a brakeman. Mr. Underwood had just finished his own long climb from day labor to the fringes of the executive world. In the next fifteen years Mr. Willard almost *ictly duplicated* on the Soo Line the jobs that Mr. Underwood had held on the St. Paul. In 1899, both left the Soo Line. Both went to the Baltimore & Ohio.

These are mere records. The story is better than that. Mr. Underwood's eye discovered young Willard on the line very shortly after 1886. Mr. Underwood watched him. They got to be good friends, the man well up the ladder and the man coming up. How much help came from above to the man who climbed, the writer does not know. Whatever it was, it seems to have been deserved.

In many things these two men are alike. Both are plain and simple citizens. Both seem to think work is more important than anything else they do. Both want action all the time. As railroad executive officers, both seem to pay more attention to the men who work for them and to the job of running the road than they do to either the stock market or the ordinary business of having a good time and growing rich, as was the habit of the dying generation of railroad bosses and presidents.

Mr. Underwood became general manager of the Baltimore & Ohio in January, 1889, and Mr. Willard came on in February to join him as assistant general manager. The combination was effective. The general manager's job on the Baltimore & Ohio was handled as it had not been handled for some time.

In those days the Baltimore & Ohio had been through purgatory, so to speak, and had not by any means arrived at that financial pinnacle to which railroads as a whole were lifted in the next era. The Baltimore & Ohio was a crooked, poor, and bedraggled thing at that time. A few years before, it had held its head pretty high; only to be found out at last and toppled into the mire of bankruptcy and disgrace. There had been reconstruction. There had been reorganization. There had even arrived the era of "gentlemen's agreements," whereby rates were maintained when the other road was looking. Because the Baltimore & Ohio did not know a "gentlemen's agreement" when it saw one, the Pennsylvania had bought enough of its stock to make it behave.

When Mr. Underwood and Mr. Willard came to it, it was in a fairly good position.

is being made better physically. It growing rich very slowly. It was ing the Pennsylvania way of sinking y into track and cars and engines. job these two men had was to help business along by making the Balti- & Ohio a better transportation ma- and by giving it some excuse for ıg competitive traffic besides the e excuse that it would do the same for less money.

ese railroad twins did not stay long the Baltimore & Ohio. In May, Mr. Underwood was called to New. to become president of the Erie oad — a man's size job if there ever een one. They elected Mr. Willard al manager in his place. He held position for about thirty days. Then ıme to New York to be assistant to dent Underwood. Pretty soon he third vice-president. Then he was vice-president and general manager. named one of the Erie tugs on the or after him, and he liked it better if it had been a yacht or an ocean

ıe main objection to working in couples at there is only room for one at the Mr. Underwood did wonders with Erie Railroad, that sad remnant of a dozen eras of exploitation and rapine high finance. Other men worked him and under him; but over them rom Mr. Underwood down, hung the ows of Morgan and Harriman in . They did their work, just the same. reconstruction of the Erie was well r way in 1904, when Mr. Willard left He went back West to Chicago — at is West — to become vice-president ıe Chicago, Burlington & Quincy.

that time one of Mr. Willard's ds on the Erie made a remark that ains in a few words much of the sophy of Daniel Willard that has e him what he has become. An r had just remarked that the move to Chicago, Burlington & Quincy was a step for Mr. Willard.

Yes," said the Erie man, "but I guess on't stand it. Willard wants to be g to make a poor road rich. He is ys figuring on the fellow down below rather than the fellow up on top. He won't stay long with the aristocracy."

Yet, he did stay on, and he did some wonders with the transportation business on the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy. To be sure, it looks, from a distance, like a fairly easy task. The Burlington is peculiarly one of the railroad aristocracy. Control of it, since 1901, has been safely tucked away in a trust company in the interest of the Northern Pacific and the Great Northern, Mr. Hill's road. It does not need to beg for crumbs of traffic. It is, as it were, the Pennsylvania of its territory. If it wants cars, or engines, or rails, or anything else, it just goes and buys them. It does not have to play both ends against the middle all the time and keep both eyes on the sheriff. It is so powerful that it takes what it wants, within reason; and so rich that it rarely has to borrow. Of course, it does borrow. All railroads do that, except the Lackawanna Railroad.

Mr. Daniel Willard, vice-president and general manager of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad, was a large figure in the railroad world. Everybody knew him. All the railroad men prophesied that some day soon, when some giant system needed a president, Daniel Willard would be a railroad president. The New York Central was suspected of wanting him once, but the line of succession ran elsewhere.

It was chance, more or less, that the Baltimore & Ohio, on which he and Mr. Underwood had both worked during their upward climb, was the road that finally put him in the presidents' list. He was frankly glad to be back, and said so. The newspapers printed sketches of him and of what he had done. He did not make a very spectacular subject. He never did anything very spectacular. He is not a railroad "magnate." He has no ambition to dominate the whole American railroad system, to upset any of the established theories of railroad business, to build or buy any transcontinental lines, or to do anything except run his railroad in the best way he can. He has a job to do and he always seems to want to be at it.

So far, this is the biography of a plain

American from Vermont who made good in Minnesota, was translated by chance into better jobs in Baltimore and New York and Chicago, and finally has become officially the head of the Baltimore & Ohio and unofficially the spokesman of the railroad world. That job, and what Mr. Willard seems to be trying to do with it, make up the rest of this record. To be the president of the Baltimore & Ohio is a large task; but to be the chosen "leading man" in American railroad administrative politics makes a much larger story.

It is well to say here, because misunderstandings are so easy to create, that the comment in this article on railroad matters and policies does not come from Mr. Willard, nor from any other railroad head. It expresses no official ideas or opinion. It is a layman's plain comment on a subject of national interest.

The railroad world in the United States is in a dilemma. That is, of course, largely its own fault. Railroad policies and railroad politics in this country contained, during the last twenty years, so much that has been arbitrary, unjust, extortionate, and crooked that the railroads, as a whole, lost the confidence of the people and became objects of distrust. At times the people seemed bent upon destroying them, and it seemed almost impossible for the railroads, either individually or as a collection of companies, to get a hearing at all before the bar of public opinion.

The result has been a state of uncertainty in the railroad business. Most of the old leaders of the railroad world, the men who made the policies and dictated the railroad terms of ten years ago, are discarded. The public cares little what they do and less what they say. It is taken for granted that their policies and purposes are purely selfish, born of a desire for larger dividends, larger salaries, and larger emoluments. The public is almost savage in its attitude toward these men and toward the things they are supposed to represent. That temper finds expression in a dozen great revelations of railroad mismanagement, in bitter speeches in the legislatures of the country, and in hundreds of bills introduced and passed in all the halls where lawmakers of the Nation gather.

The natural result in the market-p of the world has followed. The c of the American roads has sunk t lowest level, not only here but in Eu that it has seen since the great pa 1893. Some of the weaker roads already sought the refuge of receive American railroads are engaged i effort to rehabilitate their characte their credit.

Always, in such a crisis, whetl nation, railroad, industrial company church, or State, new men arise t the forces that fight for new t When the last great critical battle railroads took place it was fought th to the bitter end. It was, however, war, in which railroad sought to d railroad — and succeeded. It was a war of rates, rebates, discrimin tricks, and subterfuges. It wrecke than a third of the railroads of the States, from the Atlantic to the P and created the ruins from whicl built the fortunes and the empires passing generation of railroad king

At the end of it, when nearly smaller and the weaker roads had and when the giants of the railroa dom alone stood fairly firm upon the there came a man who led the way war into peace, and out of ruin prosperity. He was a man strong c to command the attention of his and big enough to do the task he se self. He was the president of the powerful railroad, the Pennsylvania did not, of course, dominate the rai He merely led them, bringing the gether to common policies for the in of all, holding them firm when they s to waver, establishing common p for all, mending broken heads when to, and breaking heads anew if the est of the whole demanded it.

The leadership of Mr. Cassatt years ago cannot be repeated in to-day. There is no need for it. T the civil war in which the railroads destroying themselves, he had to stri a policy that practically put such petitors as the Pennsylvania, the

: Ohio, and the Norfolk & Western
ne pocket and kept them there.
ungest clerk in the legal department
Pennsylvania would know that such
, if done to-day, would bring down
rors of the Sherman Act upon the
the railroad that did it.

task to-day is not to reconcile one
l to another, to level up discordant
mpetitive rates, and to eliminate
and discriminations. The law
ne all that. Rates are now level
n-discriminatory. Rates are pub-
and must be kept. The railroads
t quarreling among themselves.
re very far from it.

ay's task is to reconcile the rail-
nd the people. It is a statesman's
t has to be done from the ground
here are no codes and rules by
it may be done. The man who
he railroads' cause to-day and to-
must first of all make for himself
thods by which he will get a hearing.
e must get the public to come and
it out with him, like two good law-
bating right and wrong. He must
l, not disturbed by rumors, abuse,
lerstandings, petty bickerings, and
nsible talk. He must be quiet and
lanced, slow to reach great con-
s, but steadfast when he reaches
Above all, he must be honest and
t; and all men who meet him must
t when they meet him.

nsciously, the railroads are pushing
l to this task Mr. Daniel Willard
Baltimore & Ohio. He hardly
it. If he happens to read this
he will probably be inclined to deny
t us look at the facts:

ar or more ago there arose a great
between the engineers of the East-
ilroads and the roads. The men
l more money. The roads did not
o pay it. They appointed a big
ttee of workers, railroad men,
nists, and college professors and
ted the dispute back in a circle to
ace it started from. Then came
r dispute with the conductors on
me railroads. This time a little
ttee arbitrated and did a little
perhaps. Next came the train-
men, a great army making similar demands. This time, one man was pushed forward from the executive army to speak for all the railroads. It was Mr. Willard of the Baltimore & Ohio. He can talk to trainmen in their own language. He has been everything from day laborer on the track to president. He knows how a fireman lives, because he was a fireman. He knows how it feels when an engineer's pay won't go all the way around, for he was an engineer out West when hard times came twenty years ago. Undoubtedly Mr. Willard is the man to fix up this big labor trouble for the railroads.

Later on, a new plan was devised. Instead of the badly balanced rate advance proposed, and beaten, three or four years ago, the railroads came forward to ask for a general advance of 5 per cent. in freight rates. The hopes of railroad salvation are pinned on that. If that goes through, all is saved. If it does not, they believe that the fat is in the fire.

All men recognized that the freight rate advances of four years ago were beaten by the voice of the public. Public opinion damned a scheme that proposed to lay the whole burden of rate advance upon a very small part of the freight that is moved. Public opinion had to be shown that the proposed advance of 5 per cent. is fair, is good public business, is necessary, and will not give any great amount of wealth to anybody who does not earn it.

Quietly, and without any official badge upon his coat, Mr. Daniel Willard of the Baltimore & Ohio again emerges from the crowd of railroad heads and gets down to the business of getting that 5 per cent. rate increase before the court of public opinion and getting a verdict in favor of it. Of course, other men talk; but Mr. Willard is the man who must do the real work. The public has come to know that Mr. Willard is no magnate, trying to "put something across" that will net him a big return on a little investment of money and time and labor. He is the man who fits the job. He is the man who looks fairly inside and out and all around a public question — the honest man whom, maybe, the public may trust.

Therefore, these days, you may by chance find Mr. Willard anywhere between Washington, Baltimore, Chicago, and New York. He is the busiest railroad man in the United States. It is not the Baltimore & Ohio that keeps him busy. It is the American railroad system, on trial for its life, with Daniel Willard as chief advocate.

His argument is extremely simple. It runs something like this: "Transportation is a necessity of the business life of the United States. Efficient transportation is one of the biggest elements in efficient business. We have furnished efficient transportation. We have been able to furnish it because we have had a certain margin of profit on every ton of freight we have carried and on every passenger we have carried. We cannot furnish it without that margin.

"That margin is in immediate danger of being destroyed by forces over which we have no control. We cannot stop wages from rising because they rise on account of the cost of living, which is as far beyond our control as are the movements of the planets. We cannot help paying more for material and fuel than we have paid because they, too, are made by higher powers than our own. We have to furnish many additional and expensive comforts, both for our own men and for the public, because new laws demand it. Our taxes mount up just as the public's taxes do. We pay them, just like the public. Our interest rates climb, because all the world wants more revenue to meet the cost of its living. We pay that added interest, just as the merchant and the manufacturer pays it to his bank. Every item of expense has risen. We did not make them rise. They rose in spite of us.

"We manufacture transportation for the shippers and travelers of America. We sell it. Since it costs us more to make it than it used to cost, we ought to get more for it. We don't; we get less. We cannot raise rates one by one; and if we get together to do it we are immediately stopped by the law.

"Since we cannot stop the expense from rising, and cannot, of our own accord, raise *the price we charge* for service, we come to the proper authorities and ask t
mission of the shippers of the
States to raise the rates under w
do business to a point where the
margin of efficiency can be mai
We do not say we are going to rai
we ask that the Interstate Commer
mission and the people talk it o
us, look at both sides of it with
give us a fair answer. Whate
people, through their representat
is right we shall do. If they say
that it is right to push many of
roads into bankruptcy, that will
When it is done, we shall operate
and furnish service just as well a
but we cannot guarantee the q
the service, as we can if the livin
is left to us."

That is about the way the rail
to-day asking for the right to
rates 5 per cent. Of course, the
up with masses of figures. It
enough to prove that the cost
thing has risen; for there are the
to prove it. It is easy enough
that the rate of pay for trans
has gone down, for there are t
figures to show it.

Yet the argument is incomp
the public is only half disposed t
let alone to grant it. The pec
one answer, and only one. It i
spite of all that can be said, mo
big railroads of to-day are pa
biggest dividends they ever pa
the sweeping argument that was
the hands of all the people on th
1906, when the board of directo
Union Pacific raised the divide
per cent. and made the Harrima
a perpetual cause of seeming offe
the people of the United States
about these things.

Of course, that is not a true a
Mr. Willard and his fellows in th
business are not thinking about
happen so long as tonnage cr
tracks and passenger trains ru
tions. No big railroad is going
trouble maintainingits present div
long as it keeps on increasing it
year by year. What they are
about is the inevitable day

of tonnage will shrink instead
d. All men know such times
me some time. No man knows
or how late they will come; but
an carries on his own business
mind the ancient German prov-
no tree ever grows quite to the
iat Mr. Willard and his people
ng for is the right to be ready for
on of trade, for shrinking ton-
dwindling passenger traffic.
rticle does not discuss the pros
ons of the rate question. All that
said has been said simply to
what kind of a job Mr. Daniel
has on his hands at the present
is not a transportation job at
an administrative job somewhat
that of Mr. Bryan in the dispute
California and the Nation over
nese question.
the upshot of it will be, nobody seems to be able to tell. If the railroads get their increase and if the country goes on producing big business on a normal scale, of course there will be an era of prosperity and Daniel Willard will probably become a great big figure in the railroad world. If, on the contrary, no increase is allowed, and still the country keeps on producing the tonnage, the railroads will continue fairly strong and Daniel Willard will continue to be a pretty big railroad official doing a pretty big job on a pretty big system.

If the worst comes to the worst, and there is no increase in the freight rates, and the tonnage falls, it seems a fair assumption that Daniel Willard, a man of fifty-two or thereabouts, may still find opportunities for greatness. No matter what happens, Daniel Willard is one of the most interesting figures in the railroad world for the public to watch.

WHAT I AM TRYING TO DO

ESTABLISH A NEW RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE COUNTRY BANKER AND THE FARMER

BY

B. F. HARRIS

(VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE FIRST NATIONAL BANK OF CHAMPAIGN, ILL.)

'ILL soon be impossible to say of
typical American banker that he
not the sympathetic friendship of
people.
le is being thoroughly awakened to
that, in allowing people to think
s a mere money changer, a mere
ge taker, he is unfair to himself
verybody else. He is being made
e that, after all, he is among the
portant men in his community; that
to be the bravest man in town, and
afraid of criticism. He is being
hat it is all-around good business
o come out of his shell of exclusive-
l to take interest in other people,
s from them — in short, that the
ay for him to do his job in the
to enlist himself as a militant
ner in the field of public welfare
l citizenship.

It has been my privilege, with my colleagues in the Illinois Bankers' Association, to be a pioneer in the work that has resulted in a nation-wide impetus to this great reform movement, which I believe bids fair to have a more wholesome effect upon this Nation's prosperity than has almost any other movement on foot to-day.

As a banker with an inherited love for the soil and, therefore, with the interest of the farmer always at heart, my theory from the beginning has been that the banker's greatest opportunity for genuine service lay in the direction of a betterment of agricultural methods, and of a solution of the problems of rural life.

Everybody agrees that the soil and the man on the soil are the essential and final assets of the Nation. Yet most of us, for one reason or another, have either remained in ignorance of the rapidity with which

those assets have been dissipated during the last ten years, or have shown surprisingly little active concern about it. We have put forth great effort to eliminate waste and to secure scientific management in little business and in "big business," and have taken no little pride in our achievements in those directions. But hitherto we have failed to get together to put on its proper footing the biggest of all big business — agriculture.

It has long been settled beyond all discussion that the reason why relatively so few farmers have won a competence from the soil and have little, if any, profit to show, besides that which arises from an increase in the value of their farms, is that most of them have been going on capitalizing the fertility of the soil without adding to its assets.

Some experience in farming on my own land in central Illinois demonstrated to me at first hand a few years ago that the intelligent use of such information about better methods as has long been available to every farmer who took the pains to get it out of cold storage in the agricultural schools meant the difference between a bare living and a net profit every year, besides the conservation of his one big asset — the soil.

From what I saw for myself as a farmer it became one of my convictions as a banker that my good brothers everywhere might profitably do a little less thinking and talking about their dormant, unearning cash reserves, and a good deal more about the large, dormant, unemployed soil fertility and the possibilities of greater crop yields in their communities.

But it was obviously necessary to prove how such an idea would work out in actual practice before advocating its general adoption as a banking policy. Accordingly, the First National Bank of Champaign, Ill., decided to set forth in a series of advertisements what its officers believed could be accomplished for the community if the farmers knew exactly what they were doing and why they did it; if they went about their daily tasks guided by definite purpose; if they made ne serious and organized effort to become *ters of their craft.*

The point upon which we laid special emphasis in this advertising campaign was that the bank was owned and managed by farmers; that, therefore, our interests were identical with those of the community; and that we believed we and the farmers ought to coöperate to secure better methods, better yields, and better values — the basis of all future and permanent prosperity, and the things that are required to bring better roads, better rural schools, and more farm life comforts and conveniences. One of the early bulletins that we issued said:

Four hundred dollars an acre is what this bank is working for in our farm lands. We must rotate and diversify our crops to increase the fertility, to bring the yields that will finally result in $400 land prices. We ought to feed more live stock. Watch the University Farm experiments. Send us your name if you are not regularly getting their free bulletins. See our own crop report.

Another bulletin read:

A farmer said, in speaking of agricultural conditions and methods of improvement, "I never knew until to-day that one dollar and a half's worth of phosphate, rightly applied to the soil of my farm, was the difference between fifteen and fifty bushels of corn an acre." In this case, that dollar and a half's worth of phosphate was the price of success; it made the difference between a meagre crop and an abundant one. The knowledge of *how to use it* was the thing that counted. It's the same in finance.

Then there was a succession of bulletins, every one setting forth some simple principle of good farming, such as:

Test your seed corn. Will it grow? Are you sure you can depend upon it?

Don't scatter your oats broadcast on poorly prepared soil, but drill them in carefully with clover seed.

A mistake made in seed, or farming methods, can't be corrected till another year and may cost dearly meanwhile. Be careful.

Plant clover and hold it over a year. You will get greater returns from your crops and add to your permanent farm values.

Mix grain and stock farming together. You will get greater results, and increase your land fertility.

Perhaps we may not have been taken very seriously at first, especially so far

· boost for $400 farm land was con-
l. But before long we had the
rs coming to the bank to consult
ıs, and the outcome of it all was that
ofited handsomely on both sides.
ıvinced that what could be done in
ommunity could be done in every
unity in the state, if the proper
nery could be set at work, we carried
lea to the Illinois Bankers' Associa-

No argument was needed, of course,
ıvince that organization of the press-
nportance of the problems we had
ced, but there was much debate,
lly and otherwise, about whether a
:rs' association — or even an individ-
anker — should actively take an
st in such matters of public welfare,
ample of that ancient practice of re-
; to act through fear of being mis-
stood. However, the Association's
pat policies were eventually aban-
l, with the result that it became prob-
the first great organization of its
to proclaim its ambition to justify
istence by making use of its "talents"
tters of human interest, as well as of
citizenship.

began its work by naming a com-
e on agriculture — later enlarged to
le vocational education. One of the
asks undertaken by that committee
n investigation to find out just how
points of contact there really were
en the Association and the farmer.
it found that 60 per cent. of the
:rs of the state owned altogether
nd a half million acres of farm land,
vere directly or indirectly interested
ming it, there was no longer any
: that the proper agency had been
to work for the mighty cause of
ılture in Illinois.

lo not know of any better way to
ıarize what the Illinois Association
s hand to do from that time on than
uoting from the committee's first
t, which it was my privilege to write:

all the discussion and literature of the
Conservation Congress and the conser-
ı movement, popularly understood as
ng forests, water powers, mineral rights,
ve have lost sight of the greatest of all
, the preservation and conservation of
the soil itself, and the millions of boys and girls who are now on or are all too rapidly drifting away from the farm, because so little intelligent effort has been made to bring it and them into their rightful heritage. . . .

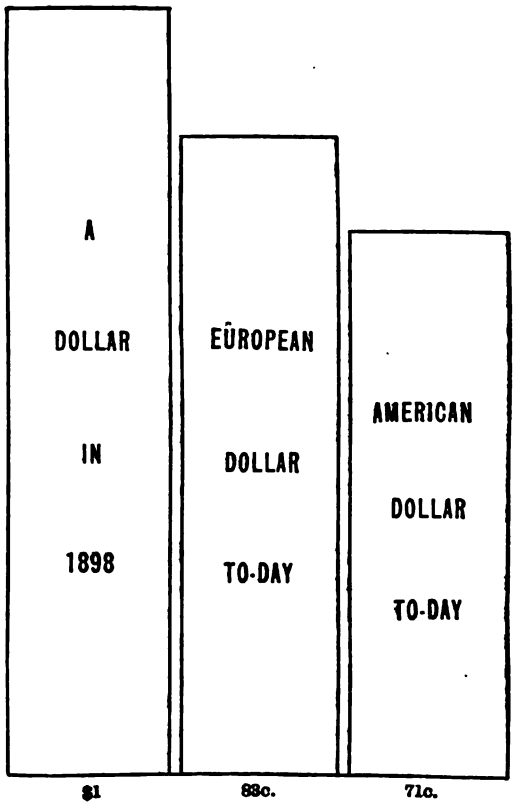
We believe in a campaign of education and propaganda along these lines; we believe in coöperation by this committee and this Association with every other organization that has for its honest purpose the improvement of agricultural methods, agricultural education, good roads, and the general betterment of social and physical conditions of all farm life and work. . . .

We feel that a system of schools, supported at public expense, can better justify itself by the further incorporation of agricultural and vocational education in its curriculum, and that the country schools in particular can be made more helpful in agricultural education and in increasing the interest of our children in the greatest and most necessary of all professions — the profession of agriculture. If this committee, or this great Association of Illinois bankers, can lend its help to the effort now appearing from all sides and sources toward bringing agriculture, our farmers, and their sons to the real position that is theirs, we shall have rendered one of the greatest services that one body of men can render to another or to civilization.

First of all, we realized that, if we were to make prompt headway in bettering agricultural methods, in restoring and maintaining soil fertility, and in increasing crop yields in this generation, we should have to do it largely with our present farmers. And we knew that the best — the only really practical — way to reach the great mass of farmers and to arouse their ambitions was by the field demonstration plan, the sending of qualified demonstrators right to the farmers on their farms, to work with them and to show them on the spot how to get better results. We had before us the marvelous results that had been produced by seven years of such work in the South, and we took the initiative in drawing and presenting to Congress the first bill providing for such work in the North and West. In February, 1912, our representatives appeared before the Committee on Agriculture of the Senate and the House in support of the bill, thus presenting the unusual spectacle of a committee of bankers lobbying for the farmers.

Though "better farming" has always been, and will continue to be, the slogan of our campaign, we have remembered that this phrase comprehends a good deal more than merely getting the farmer to apply business principles to the cultivation of his fields. That is important to our prosperity, but more important is an educated citizenship, which it implies.

The Country Life Commission reported



OUR HANDICAP IN COMPETITION

THE EXTRAORDINARY DECLINE IN THE VALUE OF THE AMERICAN DOLLAR, AS COMPARED WITH THE EUROPEAN DOLLAR, PUTS BEFORE OUR FARMERS A POWERFUL INCENTIVE TO INCREASE THEIR EFFICIENCY

that "the schools are held to be largely responsible for ineffective farming, lack of ideals, and the drift to town." I am reminded of a story in this connection. The farmers of a certain district in the state got the notion that they wanted to improve the breed of their horses. They clubbed together and bought a fine stallion for $3,500 or $4,000. Of course, they had to have a groom, so they hired *a man at a salary of $75 a month.* A little later there was a vacancy in the te position in the district school much grave discussion, the farmers s from a neighboring village, at a sa $30 a month, a young woman who to have lacked the knowledge of "boil water without burning it" the joke was not on the teacher.

What we are working for in Wi legislation to encourage, through st the establishment and maintena vocational and prevocational cou instruction and training in agricult commerce, and in the domestic a dustrial arts. And again, in th nection, it was the bankers who ciated and seized the opportunity all the important interests of th together in one conference to sec best and the most comprehensive tional bill that could be drawn.

Meanwhile, we have been a preaching the gospel of coöperative zation among the farmers. S gathered from all over the worl that, although in the last fifte the European dollar has shrunk t eighty-three cents, our dollar, m by its purchasing power of neces down to about seventy-one cents we are handicapped by Europe cents on the dollar. The only re can see for this phenomenon i European farmers not only get yields but that they are better o to sell their products, as well as chase what they require. We that, though we cannot employ country all the European meth can profit by studying them, and shall be able to handle the proble a way that the farmer may ma profits on products that will cost sumer less than they now cost.

Finally, an essential part of c is that good roads good in all se second in importance only to railr that they are even more necessa social life and in the inter-comm of rural communities. We are make the farmer see that road index of the character of every co determining its importance and or aiding its advance; and that

isn't worth a good road isn't worth it sells for, and soon won't be worth ; in.

sum up, we are working to solve four ır greatest state and national prob- — to check four of our greatest es of waste: an impoverished soil, actical educational methods, lack of organization, and poor roads. Per- the greatest accomplishment that has far been put to the credit of the ıis Bankers' Association is that it has ened other associations to their re- sibilities and opportunities for useful- in these directions. We have parti- ed in conferences called by bankers rious sections of the country; and, at call, banker-farmers from twenty- states met at New Orleans, where we largely instrumental in getting the : American Bankers' Association to int a permanent Committee on Agri- ıre and Financial Development and :ation. The movement is already n-wide.

But," someone will ask, "have you overlooked the most important of all farmer's problems — his lack of ade- e credit facilities?" Not at all. ed, the various aims of the banker- er movement, which I have under- n to describe — particularly the aim contemplates the building up of a reserve and the adoption of business- methods of agriculture — are in the analysis the conditions precedent to change in our system of farm finance. ıis problem of farm credit is precisely same as the problem of credit in any r industry, except that the use of such credit as is already available is as known and efficiently employed as e soil. Honesty and good judgment, an industrious application of both, the basis of good credit. The good ıer, as the good business man, with e attributes of credit and with a good on which to display them, makes leal debtor. We believe the majority ountry bankers appreciate this fact, gh their appreciation of it does not luce so much business as the fact ants. We want the country to know and to know also the direct mutual and public benefit that flows from an increase in business between the farmer and the banker. Official data shows that the farmer is getting as good treatment as his town neighbor, but we must do more than that if the farmer is to begin improved farming that shall be constructive alike for agriculture and the Nation.

We cannot afford to furnish money at any price for "soil robbers," "land skimmers," and farm exploiters. The farmers do not properly employ any large fraction of their present borrowings in constructive, permanent, investment farming. The reason they do not is usually given somewhat like this: "Because the loans that are available are for short periods, three to five years, and must be paid long before any material returns can be got from the investment." The facts, however, prove quite the contrary. Every agricultural college bulletin, every farm paper, and the practice of all progressive farmers are daily demonstrating that almost all the newer methods will pay themselves out at a profit in one, three, or five years at the most.

The American farmer has had great opportunities to invest his money more profitably outside than by putting it into the funds of the loan societies, and this has helped to keep interest rates higher. And the independent and individualistic tendencies of our people make doubtful the success of coöperative banking on any extended scale, though it would, of course, be interesting to see it tried out under proper safeguard. The result might be beneficial in developing business ability and vision among the farmers.

It is timely to point out that all farm financing is intimately associated, or should be, with the greater problem of a new currency system, the most pressing of all our needs. With a modern banking and currency system, there would be no objection — indeed, there would be great advantage—in permitting national banks, especially rural national banks, to invest at least 80 per cent. of all their savings deposits, and the bulk of their surplus, in good mortgages. The same privilege might well be extended to the Government's system of postal savings banks. A sur-

plus of 25 per cent. of its capital is all that is required of a national bank, whereas permission to invest its surplus, or excess surplus, in approved mortgages would be a certain incentive for it to build up a large reserve. Such permission would enable it properly to accommodate nearly all desirable borrowers, and the increased surplus would give added strength to the bank and added security to its depositors, and in turn would increase the limit of its lending power. National savings bank deposits total $750,000,000, and surplus and undivided profits amount to $950,000,000. Our suggestion therefore, enable the national ba take on a billion or more dollars estate security, and still not c large a proportion as that which t banks now carry.

The farmer's need of improve financing is not so great as the country's need of a new curren credit system; and as the farmer's ual requirements are comprehende larger plan for the whole people, h to lend his influence to secure the tion needed for this purpose.

HOW CANADA PREVENTS STRIK

ITS LAW THAT HAS PREVENTED ALL BUT EIGHTEEN STRIKES IN SIX YEARS RAILROADS, ON PUBLIC UTILITIES, AND IN THE MINES

BY

W. L. MACKENZIE KING

(FORMER MINISTER OF LABOR FOR CANADA AND AUTHOR OF THE CANADIAN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION A

THERE is nothing revolutionary about the so-called Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, which provides the machinery that is used in Canada to prevent strikes and lockouts and to bring about the settlement of disputes between the labor and capital of transportation agencies and of mines and of other industries of public service, as, for example, gas, electric light and power companies, and all other forms of public utility industries. Not only was this Act of March, 1907, a direct and logical result of conditions in Canada at that time, and of experience previously gained in meeting similar conditions, but it was also a direct and logical evolution from statutes already on the Canadian books and similar enactments which had been thoroughly tested and tried out in Great Britain. We were forced to look conditions in the face. We did it and evolved an Act to meet those conditions and similar ones which we felt might arise in the future.

't might assist in an intelligent appreciation *of the main* provisions of the Act and the ends it seeks to serve, were something of the conditions that it into being, so that an America may understand those conditi decide for himself whether or n have been paralleled in the pas likely to be duplicated in the futu American side of the internatio tier. I do not say that the Cana will solve even this one aspect of problem. I do not presume to that it would be a good Act to ado United States. I shall endeavor s give a correct idea of its principl its operation in my own country.

In the spring of 1906 the coal the province of Alberta ceased o in consequence of a strike. Th ran on all through the summer into the fall. But few of the p the vast territory lying between t Lakes and the Rocky Mountains what became so painfully obvio that the effect of the strike was nc matter at all, but that it cut off th of one of the most vital necessitie throughout a large part of the

great region. It was not until the of autumn foretold the approach of r that the people of that country suddenly to realize that they were to be face to face with a Canadian r with practically no supply of fuel and or obtainable. To show the tion as it developed, I quote herewith er addressed to the Right Honorable Vilfrid Laurier, then Prime Minister nada, by one of the settlers in Sas-ewan. In graphic relief, the situa-is it existed over miles and miles of ely settled prairie is depicted in this , and it is deserving of record for this, no other reason. But more than as the assertion by a free man of his ; and of the obligations which as a an he has the right to expect from the it is, I think, an historic document.

SIR WILFRID:

hamlet of Bladworth is the supplying for settlers in approximately 12 townships inding.

se townships have approximately 50 s, each settled therein. The country is rolling prairie, devoid of trees. The set-lepend for fuel on wood or coal obtained e nearest railway station — Bladworth. ocal dealers secure their wood from the : Albert country, and their coal from the mines, Lethbridge. No coal has been ied from this latter source since April 1st. ar was obtained from Banff in September ince which no coal has been received here. ars are under orders from Lethbridge and delivered. One car is ordered from Este-nd promised by the mine operator for nber 17th next.

od has been ordered from the Cowan any, Prince Albert, and their answer is:

e have neither slabs, edgings, nor cuttings, hough we have inquired we are unable to ny cord wood as there is none in the city."

tlers have been burning lumber at $30 usand, willow bramble, twisted hay, and

These sources are well nigh exhausted. J. Fyfe reports from observation that no in the settlers' hands, and that suffering erhaps death will ensue therefrom. All : schools are closed for want of fuel. The tchewan Hotel, a 30-roomed house, has ne fire.

blizzard has been blowing on November 16th, and 17th, with zero weather. I you, sir, to imagine what the condition of your fellow subjects is in the electoral division of Batoche — a name not unknown in history. This condition is not local but general.

We are informed that those persons operating the mines of the people are disputing over their rights, regardless of the right of the people to live. I would respectfully ask that you, sir, put an end to a dispute that is intolerable and the maintenance of which endangers the life and happiness (inalienable rights of all free people) of all settlers.

I ask you, sir, on behalf of a suffering people that by the powers vested in you the right of eminent domain be exercised.

I can assure you, sir, without exaggeration that this matter is one of life and death to the settlers here, one requiring immediate action.

Your obedient humble servant,

WILLIAM L. RAMSAY.
Chairman of Committee

Local Improvement District of Ramsay,
Saskatchewan, Nov. 19th, 1906.

This letter was but one of many similar communications received.

I was, at the time, the Deputy Minister of the Department of Labor of Canada, and while in this office had frequently been called upon to intervene in industrial disputes that directly affected the public welfare. Following precedent, I went to Lethbridge on this occasion and there encountered two difficulties which are almost always chiefly responsible for the prolongation of industrial disputes. It was, in the first place, all but impossible to get the parties to the dispute to meet together, and in the second place, when at last they were brought together, it was difficult to obtain accurate information in regard to the points in dispute.

The question at issue at the beginning of this srike had almost ceased to be the real issue at the time I reached Lethbridge. Instead, there had grown up innumerable petty disputes, many of them wholly personal, and the constant bickerings over these matters had created so much bitterness, prejudice, and hatred, that the parties to the conflict seemed hopelessly antagonistic. Studied at closer range, it seemed a wholly unnecessary waste of capital, labor, and resources, and at the same time a criminal injustice to the public dependent upon the mines for their sources of heat and power.

After the strike was at last terminated, and after the necessities of the people in the Western provinces had been met, I returned to Ottawa and made a report to Parliament, in which I emphasized the advisability of devising means whereby (in disputes likely seriously to prejudice the public welfare) the contending parties should be made to meet together and the facts made a matter of public record, where this might be necessary to prevent a lockout or strike, or to give to the public an intelligent appreciation of its cause in the event of either taking place.

It was in the belief that these means, could they be found, would go a long way toward maintaining industrial peace, and that it was the obvious duty of the State to seek these means, that I wrote the report from which the three following paragraphs are taken:

When it is remembered that organized Society alone makes possible the operation of mines to the mutual benefit of those engaged in the work of production, a recognition of the obligations due Society by the parties is something which the State is justified in compelling if the parties themselves are unwilling to concede it. In any civilized community private rights should cease when they become public wrongs. Clearly, there is nothing in the rights of parties to a dispute to justify the inhabitants of a province being brought face to face with a fuel famine amid winter conditions so long as there is coal in the ground and men and capital at hand to mine it. Either the disputants must be prepared to leave the differences which they are unable to settle amicably to the arbitrament of such authority as the State may determine most expedient, or make way for others who are prepared to do so.

Inasmuch as coal is in this country one of the foremost necessaries, on which not only a great part of the manufacturing and transportation industries, but also, as the recent experience has shown, much of happiness and life itself depend, it would appear that if legislation can be devised, which, without encroaching upon the recognized rights of employers and employees, will at the same time protect the public, the State would be justified in enacting any measure which will make the strike or lockout in a coal mine a thing of the past. Such an end, it would appear, might be achieved, at least in part, were provision made whereby, as in the case of the Railway Labor Disputes Act, all questions in dispute might be referred board empowered to conduct an investi under oath, with the additional feature haps, that such reference should not be op but obligatory, and pending the investi and until the board has issued its findi parties be restrained, on pain of penalty declaring a lockout or strike.

In view of past experience and the p situation I would, therefore, respectfully r mend that the attention of Parliament l as early a date as possible, invited to sideration of some such or other measur a view of preventing a possible recurre an experience such as this country ha forced to witness during the past month, promoting in the interests of the whole the cause of industrial peace.

The experience of that year wa ficient to ensure a sympathetic h from Parliament. Having been requ by the Prime Minister to draft my r mendations in the form of a bill, I d making abundant use in some of th tions of existing legislation in Canad other countries, and supplementing by such additional provisions as ience seemed to indicate would be i public interest.

The Department of Labor was n that date, as it now is, a separate d ment of the Government of Canad the portfolio of Minister of Labo held by the Postmaster General. Honorable Rodolphe Lemieux, M was Postmaster General and Minist Labor, and on December 17th, a within a month of the date of Mr. say's letter to Sir Wilfrid Laurier q above, Mr. Lemieux presented to P ment the bill embodying the prin and provisions I have outlined. It p rapidly, practically without amend through the House of Commons and S and received the Royal Assent on M 22d, becoming law from that time.

As indicated, the bill had its gene the coal mine strike, and strong argu in favor of it were based upon the situ created and the needs of the people i winter of 1906. But the bill itself made broad enough to include not mines only, but all other enter which enter into the services of the p The underlying idea of it is that an

poration, firm, or individual, doing business in what has come to be a necessity of life or essential to the public welfare, must not allow that industry to be paralyzed and its function rendered useless through any dispute without first having made every reasonable effort to settle the dispute, and, at any rate, made the cause of the dispute a public record.

The provisions of the Act are very simple. Whenever a strike or lockout is threatened in any one of these industries, the parties, if unable to adjust their differences amicably, must refer them to a board for settlement before such a strike or lockout can legally take place. If the men are going to strike, they must serve a notice on the Government that unless a board is appointed a strike will take place. If the management proposes a lockout, it must serve a similar notice on the Government. The notice will say that all possible means of arriving at a settlement have been exhausted and pray the Government to appoint a board of investigation. The notice served on the Government must contain a statement of the differences between the parties and a copy of that statement must also go to the other party to the dispute.

When such a notice has been served, in compliance with the terms of the Act, the Minister of Labor calls on each of the parties to name a member of the board. These two members have the opportunity to name a third member who shall be the chairman. If they are unable to agree within a reasonable time, the Minister of Labor himself appoints a chairman. If either party fails to name a member of the board, the Minister of Labor appoints some one to serve on the board as the representative of the party defaulting in making an appointment.

The board has all the powers of a court of record. It may compel the production of documents; it may subpœna witnesses; it may take evidence under oath; but its duty is primarily that of a conciliation board and a board of inquiry and only secondarily that of a court.

After meeting, if a settlement can be effected, the board simply reports to the Government the settlement of the difference. If no settlement is effected, the board publishes a report of the dispute. This is given to the press and public and sent broadcast throughout the land. It sets out the board's opinion of the real trouble, and what, in its opinion, ought to be done to prevent a strike or a lockout.

There the function of the Government ends. There is no compulsion on either party to accept the finding of the board. There is no restraint on the parties. Once they have had this inquiry, they may do just as they please about the strike or lockout. It has so often been thought by persons who are not familiar with its provisions that this Act is in a sense an act of compulsory arbitration, that I am glad to take this opportunity of pointing out that there is not the slightest compulsion placed upon either labor or capital as a result of an investigation conducted under its provisions.

When I say there is no compulsion I mean, of course, no legal compulsion. There is the restraint which the law imposes of delaying an interruption to industry before and pending inquiry, and there is, once an investigation has taken place, the restraining influence of public opinion intelligently formed. If, after investigation, any company, or any group of labor, operating a public utility of any sort, cares to tie up that public utility so that the public have not full and complete use of it, the public at least knows what the causes of the disputes are, and also has an opinion concerning what seems to be the right and the fair thing to do under the circumstances. This restraining influence of public opinion we have found in Canada a very powerful aid to industrial peace; in the last analysis, it is a most powerful element in settling all conflicts between capital and labor.

This original Act of 1907 has been slightly amended since its introduction. As Minister of Labor, I introduced in 1910 an amendment to compel a thirty days' notice to be given by either company or men, where any change of wages or of hours of labor is proposed. The change, if objected to, cannot go into effect till an inquiry has taken place. This clause gives the men opportunity, in case the

company announces a reduction in wages, to appeal to the Government, and also gives the companies a similar opportunity, if the men demand increases in wages or changes in the hours of labor. This is the most important amendment that has been made to the Act. It was made at the request of representatives of labor. It places the burden of showing cause for a change in conditions, if exception be taken, upon the party that proposed the change. Another amendment, made at the same time, concedes to union officials, where a union is recognized by a company, certain privileges in the manner in which applications for the boards are made to the Government.

This legislation is very simple. It is well understood not only by labor and capital, but by the general public. It has led the people to take a closer interest in, and to follow much more in detail, the disputes that arise in Canada. The Act has practically made the people of Canada a party to every dispute in industries that supply public necessities.

This Act has now been on the statute books for more than six years. A complete record of its operation from the end of March, 1907, to the end of March, 1913, shows that during that time there have been, altogether, 145 applications for boards. Of these, 40 have had to do with coal mining, 11 with metal mining; 61 with railroads; 13 with street railways; 7 with shipping; 2 with commercial telegraphers; 2 with telephone workers; 4 with civic laborers; and 5 with industries other than mines or public utilities, such as the boot and shoe industry, which may come under its provisions if the parties acquiesce.

Of the 145 applications for boards received during six years, strikes were averted or ended in all cases save 18; that is to say, in all cases, save, on an average, three in every year. There have been isolated cases where men have struck without knowing that the Act was on the books, but in these cases the differences have been settled under the law almost immediately after its provisions became known.

Of these 145 cases, 18 were settled *after application* had been made for a board, but before a board was actually appointed. This is an evidence of the restraining effect of such an Act. In these cases, either one or the other of the parties to the dispute realized that they did not have a good enough case to take before a board, and were prepared, therefore, to make a settlement without further investigation. For the same reason, the actual effect of this law is probably very much wider than the figures seem to indicate. I know from personal knowledge of cases in which, under former conditions, strikes or lockouts would have taken place, but which, because of the fear of publicity through investigation, have been settled and smoothed away by an agreement between the men and the companies without even an application for a board. It is impossible, of course, to assume, with any degree of accuracy, how many disputes have thus been privately settled, which in other years might have become serious. Small disputes, which are perfectly easy to settle in the first place, if not dealt with in time, often grow into tremendous battles between capital and labor, where there is no compelling force or power to bring the parties to a dispute together in amicable conference.

To go back to the records, during the six years following the enactment of this legislation, in 127 cases boards actually held inquiries and reported upon their work. I will outline very briefly some of the details of the settlements that were effected. In considering its application to steam railroads the scope of the law must be kept in mind. It applies not merely to the classes of labor comprising the operating crews of railroads, as is true of the Erdman Act in the United States, but it embraces all classes of persons employed by railroads: roundhouse employees, car builders and repairers, clerks, freight handlers, and so forth. Limiting the application of the Act to cases where only the operating crews of railroads have been concerned, the record shows that only one strike occasioning any serious interruption to transportation has occurred on the railroads of Canada since the Act was placed on the statute books. That was the Grand Trunk strike of 1910, which took place

r there had been an investigation by a rd. It lasted about two weeks and finally settled very much on the basis ommended by the board. There have n, in all, five other strikes of employees ailroads, but none of these has per- tibly affected the public welfare.

n the street railway field we used to e strikes in Canada every year. They e among the worst strikes we have had he country, by which I mean that they onvenienced the public more than other kes, that they not infrequently led to destruction of a great deal of property, that they occasionally resulted in the cting of permanent injury and, in one wo cases, loss of life itself. Since the sage of this Act, for this period of six rs we had only one strike on all the et railway systems of Canada. That a strike that took place in Winnipeg r a board had made an investigation that lasted only for a few days and then settled on the basis of an award le by the board.

ormerly our steamship companies were up in the seaports almost every ng as the result of industrial disputes. ce the Act went into effect we have little or no stoppage in transporta- n either on the Great Lakes, the St. vrence, or ocean ports, due to lock- s or strikes.

We used to be troubled, also, with strikes telegraphers and telephone operators. ce this Act was passed we have suffered interruption of these important agen- of communication.

have touched here on the main ele- nts that enter into the transportation communication systems of the coun- It is obvious from the records that Canada, with the exceptions named, we e had for six years what might be called all but complete immunity from indus- l strife on the agencies of transporta- n and communication in the Dominion. mines, the record has not been quite so d, though there, also, it has been very orable.

f the Act had done nothing more than ceptibly to minimize the yearly aver- of industrial disputes it would be de- ving of being classed not only as a successful piece of legislation but as a law that had conferred upon the people of the whole Dominion a security in industrial affairs hitherto unknown. But it has done more than this; it has maintained industrial peace to a degree the money value of which it is impossible to estimate.

If one asks whether this system of compulsory investigation, which we have made a law, does not work hardship upon either capital or labor, or perhaps upon both, the only reply that need be made is that leaders of both industry and of labor have over and over again endorsed the Act as sound, fair, and equitable. The managers of the companies are almost unanimous in the approval which they give to its provisions. Some labor officials have opposed its provisions, but such labor leaders as Mr. Calvin Lawrence, the legislative representative of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, Mr. E. J. Dowley, the legislative representative of the Brotherhood of Firemen and Enginemen; Mr. John Maloney, the legislative representative of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen; and Mr. D. Campbell, of the Order of Railroad Telegraphers, have endorsed the Act strongly. Mr. A. B. Lowe, president of the International Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees, said in a letter to the Department of Labor, in 1910, "My opinion of the Act itself has never changed—that it is one of the best pieces of legislation that has been passed (to my knowledge) in the interests of industrial peace." That it has met with the approval, and surpassed the expectations, of the general public, is beyond all question.

Nor is the success which has attended this legislation and its general acceptance a matter of wonder when one considers a few fundamental truths on which it is based and which it helps to exemplify. One is that in the carrying out of all legislation, men are more important than measures. The Canadian Act, by according to each of the parties its own representatives on boards of inquiry, and permitting them to appear in person to aid in the work of conciliation and investigation, ensures a degree of sympathy with the Act and all that takes place under it which

would not be possible in the case of a statute more mechanically administered.

Another truth is that in evoking confidence, personality is a more potent element than policy. The Canadian Act is not dependent upon precedent; in the carrying out of its provisions, on the other hand, it permits a range of the whole Dominion in the selection of the persons best qualified to deal with a particular situation.

Furthermore, publicity as a means of preventing and redressing wrong is often more effective than penalty. It is a fact of human nature that however mean and contemptible men may be as individuals, collectively and in the light of day they hesitate to have their actions so appear. The Canadian Act, by ensuring the widest publicity, prevents the mean man from profiting because of his meanness.

Lastly, as Edmund Burke has said, "Justice is the common concern of mankind." The Canadian Act, by recognizing the public as a party immediately concerned in the prevention of industrial wrongs, helps to ensure that measure of justice in the investigation of industrial differences which makes the verdict of public opinion, or the fear of it, all-powerful as an element in the maintenance of industrial peace.

The Canadian statute may have its shortcomings and limitations, but being in its essentials an instrument calculated to ensure fair play between employer and employed in situations in which the public is immediately and immeasurably affected, it bids fair to become more and more, as time goes on, a not less welcome than efficient means of maintaining industrial peace.

A WOMAN OF ACHIEVEMENT

MISS GERTRUDE BEEKS

WHOSE SUCCESS IN BETTERING WORKING AND LIVING CONDITIONS AT PANAMA, IN STORES AND FACTORIES, AND AMONG MANY OTHER LARGE BODIES OF MEN AND WOMEN IN INDUSTRY PLACES HER AMONG THE FOREMOST "WELFARE" WORKERS OF THE WORLD

BY

SARAH COMSTOCK

THERE may be several ways of accounting for Miss Gertrude Breckenridge Beeks, and she is worth accounting for.

She was sent by President Roosevelt and Secretary of War Taft to Panama in 1907, to make investigation and give expert advice upon the social life, food, and housing of American employees there. In 1913, she was chosen by the New York University's School of Commerce to organize and head the first systematic course in welfare work ever given in the history of education. These are two specific items in her career. In general, she is acknowledged as probably the foremost welfare worker in America to-day, having organized and developed the Employers' Welfare Department of *the National Civic* Federation, of which she is nominally secretary and actually the very pulse.

During her presidency of the National Association of Business Women, Miss Beeks found that Chicago offered no suitable lunchroom for business women of a fairly prosperous class. She thought the matter over, then proceeded to bring together three elements, namely, a few people who could furnish financial backing for the start; a set of pleasing Dutch-blue dishes; and some excellently broiled chops. The enterprise was launched, was patronized, and it paid. What it taught her of the needs of the worker and of economic management was the basis of all she has done since.

At that time welfare work was new, and its advocates were without a definite idea of where it would lead. In a few

ɔries scattered over the country em-
ers had made small, well-meaning
npts to better the conditions of their
loyees. There was no system.
r. Cyrus H. McCormick, of the Inter-
onal Harvester Company, was one
hese employers, and it occurred to
that the right person, given absolute
ge of the matter, could handle this
ttering" work far more successfully
ı he and his various superintendents,
ı their minds on other matters, could
dle it. He said to Miss Beeks, "See
t you can do to make the three hundred
and five thousand men who work
us like to work for us." She didn't
her breath back for a few seconds.
n, "I'll begin on the girls," she said.
he great harvesting machine company
installing a twine mill on its premises
here the girls worked, making the
ıe used in binders. "She's a mission-
" they whispered, as she walked through
mill. She was not one of them, they
not know her purpose, and they did
want her.
ut she continued, making close ob-
ations and laying her plans quietly.
saw strange Lithuanian sausages,
s of dark Slovak bread, and uncouth
ıck pickles emerging every noon from
h-baskets. The first thing these
needed was a hot, wholesome lunch.
Miss Beeks realized that the mere
ɔuncement of the opening of a lunch-
n would meet with no response from
not at all interested in their own
are as the trained mind sees it.
herefore she tried another way. She
ɔunced a dinner and entertainment
e given the next Saturday night.
ll the girls came. They found a long
n substantially furnished with good
es, chairs, and dishes. At the end of
room was a piano. The girls did not
w that Miss Beeks had been racking
brain to spread the $1,500 that had
ı allowed her over all the needs of
pment, and that when only $50 was
she had tramped over Chicago to find
cond-hand piano that could be bought
that sum — for then, as now, dancing
recreation for the worker was one of
first articles in her creed. There was
a dance that very night, after an excellent dinner, music, and a sleight-of-hand performance. It was altogether the best time these girls had ever had. At the end, when they were in a mood to receive it, came the announcement that lunch would be served in that room every workday thereafter — and at such prices that everybody could afford it.

If anything was left to be accomplished by the hot soups, good stews, baked apples, and well-made gingerbread, that fifty-dollar piano did it The girls took to saving ten minutes after lunch for the dance. They discovered that the nourishing meal and brisk exercise put them in condition for the afternoon work. The lunch room was a success. Those in charge also made a discovery: *Efficiency was being increased.* At this point Miss Beeks screwed her courage to the point of tackling the five thousand men.

She was the first woman who had ever entered that vast shop, and the men resented her even more than the girls had. She tried in vain for awhile to reach these murky, child-like natures. It was a queer little incident that turned the tide. She overheard, in the midst of foreign gabble, a remark that her rose was pretty. Instantly she took it from her buttonhole and handed it to the man. The human note was struck. She had their friendship, which is the first essential in welfare work.

"They're a grimy, lot. I wonder if they like to be grimy," she observed to a foreman.

"Oh, that's natural to them," he responded.

Miss Beeks still wondered. To find out, she installed a row of deep white basins, and plenty of soap and clean towels. "They'll go dirty, same as ever," was the prophecy. But they didn't. They cleaned up!

Later, they showed their appreciation of improved lockers. They took advantage of the entertainments, lectures, and the like, which she brought to the assembly room. They delighted in the Glee Club which she organized. They came with their families, ten thousand strong, to a picnic which she took forty miles into the country, and their alien voices sounded the

praises of the wonder-working Miss Beeks. They came to know her as a sympathetic visitor in trouble and sickness. And they came to have a new and more friendly attitude toward the employers who had made her work for them possible.

In the two years that she spent in the harvester factory she built the foundation of all her skill. She formulated the five sub-heads into which she divides welfare work, and which she used as her ground-plan when Mr. Ralph M. Easley asked her to develop in the National Civic Federation a department of this work. Sanitation, recreation, education, housing, and provident funds she calls the sub-divisions of welfare work, which she defines as "the improving of working and living conditions of employees by employers; it is applicable to stores, factories, mines, and railroads as well as to public institutions." Fundamentally, too, she insists that in promoting the work it must be recognized that the first essentials to the welfare of employees are steady work, an equitable wage, and reasonable hours of labor; but that employers have the further obligation to add to the comfort of their employees. And she believes that the beginning of all welfare work should be directed toward meeting the pressing necessities for the physical well-being of employees in their work-places.

As the Employers' Welfare Department of the Federation has gone on growing during the last decade, it has crystallized into one big movement the many small movements which were beginning over the United States. It has grown faster than anybody dreamed. It has brought together employers at conferences, so that they could talk over what they were doing along these lines, compare notes, get advice. It has educated employers both by conference and by stereopticon lectures, and by the maintenance of a bureau of advice through which plans, photographs, and literature are furnished. It takes especial pains to bring employers and welfare workers in touch with each other, to arouse emulation. "See what commodious shower baths Jones has," is the surest way to induce Smith to provide *still more commodious* ones. In going over the various factories of an enormous electric lighting firm, Miss Beeks suggested to the owner: "Let your superintendents get together for a day and report. We'll send you slides showing what others have done. The doubting Thomases usually coöperate after seeing views. Yes, I know — cost is always the first obstacle. But if a man doesn't appreciate the humanitarian standpoint, you can prove economy to him every time in increased efficiency and the greater permanence of employees through better health."

Her activity is prodigious. I spent one day in pursuit of a talk with her, and I know whereof I speak. We had just begun, in the morning, when a man from Ohio arrived. He was from a manufacturing plant there and she had promised to show him how one of the largest insurance companies in New York does it. "Come along," said Miss Beeks.

So I watched the conversion of the man from Ohio. He saw how much happier girls look when lunching in a light room instead of a dark one; how dismissing the men in groups of ten at intervals of two minutes permits them to pass quietly along the corridor without congesting it; how a little emergency hospital with a doctor and a trained nurse and a few cots can nip slight illness in the bud and save petty accidents from becoming serious; she wasn't half through with him yet, and already he was converted.

"Only don't *give* your employees their lunch, as this firm does," she said, smiling at the great insurance man who conducted us. "It's paternalistic. I'm glad the eye clinic is to offer lenses ground at cost, not free. That's the self-respecting basis for the worker."

It was time for our own lunch. After it, some young welfare workers from neighboring cities arrived for advice. Miss Beeks and I had not talked yet. Telephone calls interrupted us all afternoon. A doctor called up to reply to an inquiry she had made concerning acid poisoning; an architect was ready to take up with her the plans for employees' quarters in a new department store. More calls; suddenly she discovered that it was just time to hurry to her class at the

York University in Washington
re — half a hundred young students
ıe commercial school awaited her,
to learn about workmen's compensa-
the meaning of trade agreements,
methods of combating industrial
ning.
'his evening we can talk," I called
her.
'es, about ten, after the dinner,"
eplied. It was to be a gathering of
employers to discuss ways and means.
ıual, she was the only woman present.
he time she had made these forty
ɔyers see that it would be not only
ıne but also good economy in the end
ːnce machinery, to cover gears, to
l the saws, it was 11.25.
net her. "If you're not obliged to
in for a half-hour ——" I began.
'o turn in!" she cried. "I've got
thirty-five minutes to make the
!" And in that thirty-five minutes
r her crowd what garments she could
a suit case, hurry into a taxicab,
to the station, and wave a midnight
-bye. Next morning she would
n in another city to be conducted
huge new office building which was
ng history by installing welfare work
he employees of its tenants. There
to be rest rooms, lunch rooms,
tainments, and so on, for the army of
s and stenographers in many offices,
Miss Beeks had been asked to look
the arrangements before they were
ıleted.
ı with her on one of these expeditions
watch her keen eye summarize con-
ns, never missing a point. It does
ake her long. No two of her investi-
ns are alike, but she knows what to
for. For instance, she must have
ed a paper mill, or a brass foundry,
knitted woollen mill for the first time,
what she knew of other industries
ıt her what to look for in these. In
nanufacturing there are only about
ɔre of dangers — from burning, from
ng, from acid, and so on. She knows
/ of the things a doctor knows. Her
scours the shops for hints of these
ers. "Are there dust consumers?"
asks at once. Perhaps the dust is
from a metal, perhaps it is a fine vegetable fibre, as in the twine mill.

She looks for methods of removing gases, of ventilating, of safeguarding against accident. Does the industry require superheating, as in the watch factory, where girls bake the faces of the watches before furnaces whose interior heat is 2,000 degrees Fahrenheit? Then humidify the air through forced ventilation. Are there shower baths and drying rooms for any molders or stationary firemen employed? There ought to be. How about pure drinking water — about the lighting of work-places — about laundries for men's overalls and women's uniforms? How about seats for women, and elevators for their use? They ought not to climb long flights of stairs. "Don't say that the elevator can't handle so many," Miss Beeks insists. It's all a matter of thinking the matter out. Your girls all arrive at seven, you say. Why? Can the pasters paste until the folders have folded? Certainly not. Now let the folders arrive at seven, the pasters at seven-ten, and so on, dismissing at night at the same intervals. The advice of an architect can be called in to help plan the entrances and exits, so that there shall be no time lost by conflicting crowds — but, for that matter, Miss Beeks knows many of the things that expert architectural advisers know, and there is no danger of her planning an entrance, capacity so many persons abreast, and asking it to admit twice as many persons per minute as a builder's estimate will admit; nor will she make the amateur's mistake of counting that more persons per minute can be discharged going downstairs than upstairs, when the exact reverse is true. Here she observes that a bad odor comes from phosphorus in another room, caused by a painting machine; it should be shut off. Attractive white bowls, instead of those few dingy sinks, would encourage cleanliness, she tactfully suggests; you cannot make her believe that the worker does not want to be clean, since a certain wheat-food factory found its wash basin pipes stopped and, upon investigation, found that the girls had been using the rough wheat fibre in place of nail brushes.

You say that your girls loiter in the halls. Give them a brief but complete rest period and see whether loitering is not replaced by brisk work. . . . All this with infinite tact; there is no use antagonizing an employer who will want to do better, once he is made to understand.

Employers do welcome better conditions — she believes that firmly. She finds them humanitarian and willing, once they are awakened. Of course, a few are cruel and narrow; but she can show you sunny rest rooms and libraries in department stores, athletic fields for factory hands, excellent sanitation in cotton mills. And so, suavely assuming the employer's willingness, she goes about suggesting still greater benefits — maybe a roof garden would be feasible, or a bowling alley, or a rest house for trainmen. Are there arrangements for wage earners' insurance? Do they include compensation for victims of industrial accidents? Retirement funds, or old age pensions? Are there plans for lending money in times of stress?

These are a very few of the multitudinous points for which Miss Beeks's gray eyes go ferreting through a Southern cotton mill or a Northern shop or altogether underground, for her investigations of the anthracite mines she reckons the biggest job she has ever undertaken, and her recommendations, the result of long study, are now in the hands of the leading mine operators of all the vast anthracite region, who have given her their support and assistance.

Equipped for long, perilous underground journeys, she took her eyes and her camera miles into the earth, adding to the risk by her flash-light. She spent weeks in this way, undergoing every hardship; she clambered all day where there was barely foothold, prowled in darkness, in wetness; ate in poverty-stricken cabins, slept where luck offered a pillow. She found sanitation in need of improvement; and she asked, too, that drinking water be looked to in many a mining community where the mines themselves had polluted it. She quoted the facts of the Cherry disaster and asked why every mine *had not a thorough* fire drill? She saw *the need of education* as she came to study the children of the coal world; teac breaker boys hygiene in simple t she suggested, and why not organize ing classes for miners' daughters? advocated the building of houses b mine operators, and more facili recreation. Visiting nurses could wonders in the families of these they could teach mothers how for babies, how to make the sanitary. And if there were houses everywhere for the m if two men were placed in eve room, so that if an operator sh or die at his post there would be to take his place in hoisting; t general plan for safeguarding were including the appointment of a committee composed of an engineer every mine to interchange experien then, said Miss Beeks, let's see what happen. The operator who installe shower baths for his mules did a hu act, she observed; but how glad so the men would be to be as fortuna mules! All this stands for weeks, m of close study, that she might formu plan that should be feasible, not visic

The Government at Washingto lected Miss Beeks to look over Pa at the time employees were leavi most as fast as they could be br there. She traveled for several about the Isthmus, and her acquaint ranged from the highest officials t European laborers. How could th borers be happy, she inquired, in d tories of 60 to 84 cots and less air than tenement laws require? shouldn't they have pneumonia they were without blankets? Why s families like to live in a camp where were no schools for the children? not organize clubs to make the w content? Above all — that "all" cluded a long list of "Do's" and "Don — above all, give the men drying r for wet garments! The lack of them murderous! And the achievement o drying rooms, apparently a minor t to the uninitiated, she counts the gre of all her Panama experience, for it m the saving not only of health, bu numberless lives as well.

MORE SHIPS THAN EVER BEFORE

SHIPOWNERS BREAKING ALL RECENT RECORDS IN BUILDING, IN PLANNING MANY NEW TRADE ROUTES, AND IN INCREASING AND IMPROVING THE SERVICE ON NEARLY EVERY IMPORTANT LINE — THE REASON FOR AN UNPRECEDENTED REVIVAL IN OCEAN TRAFFIC THROUGHOUT THE WORLD — THE EFFECT OF THE PANAMA CANAL

BY

EDWARD NEVILLE VOSE

EDITOR OF "DUN'S INTERNATIONAL REVIEW"

THE world's equipment for ocean transportation is now increasing at a more rapid pace than at any time since men first began to go down to the sea in ships. Since une, 1909, Lloyd's Register of Shipping hows an almost uninterrupted succession f advances in the amount of gross tonnage nder construction in Great Britain. In he second quarter of 1911 all previous ecords for the United Kingdom were urpassed, the total reported being conderably more than 1,450,000 tons. Then ame a quarter year f slight recession, ut after that the ate of production ncreased even more apidly than before, nd has continued to o so without a ngle interruption to he present time. he record for the rst quarter of 1913 howed that, excludg warships, there ere 563 vessels of ,063,694 tons gross egister then under onstruction in Britsh shipyards, an increase of 94,000 tons over the first quarter, and 377,000 tons more than were under construction at the close of the corresponding quarter the year before. Though the final statistics for the second quarter of this year are not available as this article is going to press, preliminary returns indicate that there will be another substantial increase. This continuous record of progress for a period of forty-eight months is so noteworthy that a diagram graphically illustrating it is shown on page 465.

A MERCHANTMAN AT SEA

This unprecedented increase in shipbuilding is reflected in the returns from every part of the world. According to Lloyd's Annual Summary of Shipbuilding, the world's output of new tonnage, exclusive of warships, last year was 1,719 vessels of 2,901,769 tons gross. Of this total the United Kingdom supplied 1,738,514 tons — a tonnage only twice

THE LAST GOODBYES OF TRAVELERS BOUND FOR EUROPE

THE LARGEST, FASTEST, AND MOST LUXURIOUS STEAMERS IN THE WORLD, WHETHER THEY COME FROM ENGLAND, GERMANY, OR FRANCE, COME TO THE PORT OF NEW YORK

surpassed, in 1906 and in 1911. The output in Germany amounted to 375,317 tons, which was 57,000 tons more than the previous high record for that country — set in 1906. The tonnage reported for the United States was 284,223 tons, an increase of 112,000 tons over the previous year, although much below the totals for

A LINER STARTING ON A TRANSATLANTIC VOYAGE

ONE OF THE GREAT VESSELS THAT CARRY THE STREAM OF AMERICAN TOURIST TRAFFIC ABROAD AND BRING BACK THE FLOOD OF EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION

e years since 1900. The French 10,734 tons, showed a decrease 15,000 tons from the returns of surpassed all previous years 00, 1901, and 1902. The pro- Holland was 99,439 tons, an f more than 6,000 tons as com- 1911, and the highest total ever for that country. The 57,755 d out in the shipyards of Japan ncrease of 13,000 tons over the re, and surpassed all previous

ON THE BOAT DECK OF A LINER

AT GIVES A GOOD IDEA OF THE GREAT LENGTH OF THE LARGER MODERN PASSENGER VESSELS

cept those for 1907 and 1908. 5 tons completed in Norway were 15,000 tons over 1911, although was exceeded in the years from 08. The 38,821 tons of Austria- and the 34,790 of the British surpassed all previous records, he 60,622 reported for "other " and the 26,103 tons for Den- the 25,196 tons for Italy exceeded ars, although not all previous he grand total for all countries was exceeded only once, in 1906, and then by only 18,000 tons; and present reports of the tonnage under construction indicate that the final output for 1913 will in all probability greatly exceed both of these record years.

The immediate cause of this remarkable activity in shipbuilding is that shipowners for the last two or three years have been making very handsome profits. If a railroad line between two or more sections succeeded in developing a very heavy and lucrative traffic, to the great profit of its fortunate stockholders, it would require a long time and the expenditure of vast sums of money before a rival line could successfully tap the same territory and secure a share of the business. On the ocean, however, the right of way is free to every one and all that is necessary is to provide the carrier. This is the reason why in the shipping business periods of great prosperity are usually succeeded by periods of depression. When ships are in demand and profits are high more vessels are ordered, the supply soon exceeds the

demand over all the leading routes, and freight rates and profits fall.

But there are other reasons than the prosperity of shipowners that explain why 1913 seems likely to surpass all former years in maritime activity. The first of these reasons is the enormous development of world commerce in recent years. The Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce recently estimated the yearly volume of international commerce at more than 18 billion dollars. By far the greater part of this stupendous quantity of merchandise is ocean-borne, and its transportation swells the profits of the shipowners. New uses are constantly being found for staple commercial products, new products of much importance are being discovered, new producing regions are constantly being developed for many of the world's great staples, and new markets are being found for them. In nearly every part of the world manufacturing is on the increase, resulting in innumerable changes in the international movement of the raw materials and the finished product.

The exploitation and development of many portions of the world in recent years has vastly increased the commerce between those regions and the rest of the world. Both the exports and the imports of Porto Rico have increased manyfold under American administration. The foreign trade of Cuba and the Philippines has increased several hundred per cent. during the same period. An equally noteworthy expansion has taken place in the overseas commerce of South Africa under British control, of Algeria under the French administration, of the regions colonized by the Germans. Stable government, expanding railroad systems, improved harbors, and fast-growing cities have brought about an increase of both inbound and outbound commerce that now requires fleets of steamships to trans-

THE PILOT HOUSE OF A GERMAN LINER

ONE OF THE LUXURIOUS STEAMERS THAT ARE DESIGNED ESPECIALLY TO SERVE THE HEAVY TOURIST TRAFFIC FROM AMERICA TO THE PLEASURE GROUNDS OF EUROPE

FITTING OUT THE "IMPERATOR"

THE MOST RECENT "BIGGEST SHIP AFLOAT," THAT WILL SOON BE EXCELLED IN SIZE AND EQUIPMENT BY OTHER GIANTS THAT ARE BEING BUILT IN THE WORLD-WIDE REVIVAL OF SHIPPING

PUTTING BAGGAGE IN THE HOLD

THE LATEST STEAMERS ARE NEARLY ALL BEING BUILT AFTER A NEW DESIGN THAT GREATLY INCREASES THE CARGO SPACE AND THAT FACILITATES LOADING

THE SKELETON OF A TRANSATLANTIC LINER

IN ONE OF THE MANY SHIPYARDS THROUGHOUT THE WORLD THAT ARE BEING RUSHED TO SUPPLY VESSELS TO CARRY THE EXTRAORDINARY TRAFFIC THAT IS NOW SEEKING TRANSPORT BY SEA

it where a few straggling sailing vessels ed twenty years ago.

nother mighty impetus to the maritime c of the world is the vast migration of races from the overcrowded East to road lands of promise that await them e West. There has been nothing like n all history — the torrent that s past the Statue of Liberty to-day, o in a week recently, a million in a

commuters, as it were, on the ocean passenger routes, only — so far, at least — they pay full fare both ways. The Panama Canal will create a new route from Europe to the Pacific Slope that will attract both the settler type of immigrant and the commuter type.

The vast expansion of tourist traffic during the last ten or fifteen years has caused shipowners to devote more atten-

THE LAUNCHING OF THE "OLYMPIC"

ONE OF THE MOST DRAMATIC MOMENTS IN THE ROMANTIC CAREER OF THE DEEP-SEA CARRIERS

This wonderful stream of immi- s bound for our fertile western plains, to the alluring domains of Canada, eritable golden stream for the steam- lines. A similar, although smaller, m is setting southwestward to the ntine, and — there as well as here — ry considerable body of the Italian other laborers from southern Europe n every winter.

hese shifting bodies of labor are the

tion than ever before to meeting the somewhat exacting requirements of this trade. As always, New York continues to be the foremost port in this respect. The largest, fastest, and finest vessels that sail from any European port are those whose trans-Atlantic destination is New York. At Bremen, Hamburg, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Havre; at Southampton, Liverpool, Glasgow — at every shipping port frequented by tourists — the situation is the same. And

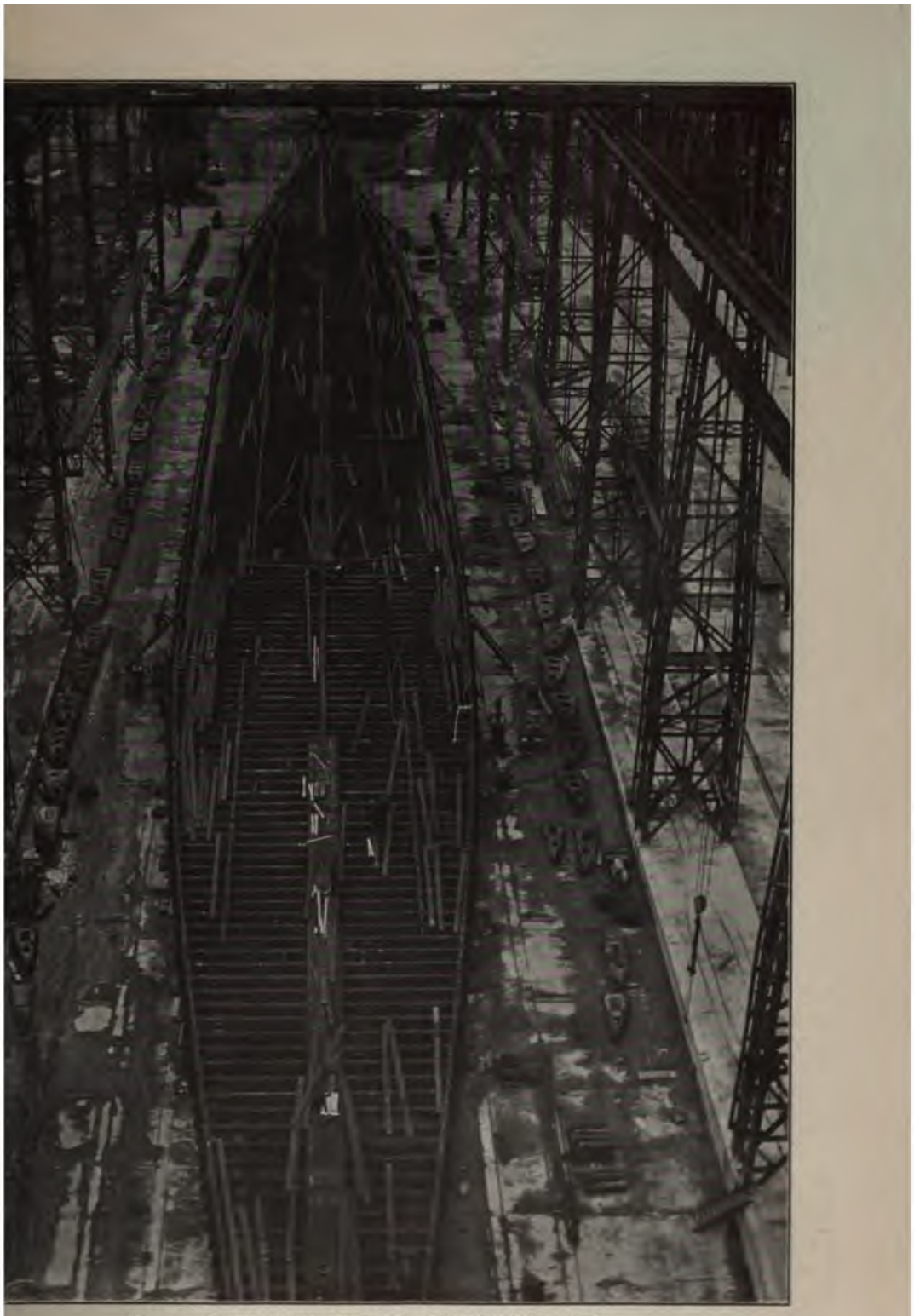
A MODERN LINER'S ANCHOR

BIG ENOUGH TO HOLD A FLOATING WOOLWORTH BUILDING AGAINST WINDS AND TIDES

it is scarcely to be wondered at that this should be true, for Americans as a people are probably the greatest travelers in the world and their natural propensity for this form of recreation has been vastly stimulated by the stereopticon lecturers who describe the pleasures of travel in brilliant terms, and more recently by the spread of motion picture shows which include travel scenes in their offerings. Hence,

READY FOR FUNNELS AND RAILS

THE HULL OF THE "IMPERATOR" IN DOCK AFTER LAUNCHING



THE "OLYMPIC" UNDER CONSTRUCTION

ITS DECK BEAMS AS SEEN FROM ABOVE BEFORE THE HULL WAS FLOATED

THE ENGINE ROOM OF A MOTOR VESSEL

ON THE "SELANDIA," ONE OF THE MANY LARGE OCEAN-GOING CARGO BOATS THAT ARE NOW BEING BUILT TO USE PETROLEUM INSTEAD OF COAL AS FUEL

nearly every great passenger line has still larger, faster, and finer vessels building than any in its present fleet — and these also are destined for the New York service and no other. When steamers that were once the pride of the line become obsolete for this service they are transferred to other routes — the famous *Deutschland*, once the fastest of the ocean greyhounds, now plies from Hamburg to Buenos Aires. In recent years there has been a remarkable development of tourist traffic over new routes. Tens of thousands have visited the Panama Canal to see its construction, and a steady stream now flows southward to all parts of the Caribbean Sea. Tourist traffic at ports like Hong Kong and Manila has increased 50 per cent. in the last year and is still expanding rapidly. Tours are now being successfully conducted around South America, and the Hamburg-American Line has for some time yearly sent one of its best steamers twice around the world for a single special fare. With the completion of the Canal a considerable tourist traffic is expected to develop between Europe and the western coast of the United States and between the eastern and western coasts of North and South America — the latter a route that is even now popular with the hardier travelers.

The approaching completion of the Panama Canal has unquestionably stimulated steamship building to some extent; and it is responsible for a tremendous amount of planning regarding new routes, and for new services over existing routes that will be more or less modified. The purely coastwise companies, that are protected against all foreign competition, have done remarkably little to prepare for the new route by building new vessels for it. Two fast passenger steamers are under construction at a Philadelphia shipyard that many think are destined for the Canal eventually, but their owners and their purpose have not yet been

ounced. The other vessels now being t for the American merchant marine freighters, the largest group of these g eight, of 11,148 tons dead weight acity, for the American-Hawaiian amship Company, under construction at rrows Point. This is probably the gest single order for American merchant s ever given to an American yard. se modern cargo carriers, six of them d with refrigerator space for the waiian pineapple and California citrus t trade, will make a fleet of 26 vessels 92,044 tons total dead weight capac- to be operated by this company. At ent these ships are operating by way he Tehuantepec Railroad, but all will be transferred to the Canal on its completion. Messrs. W. R. Grace & Company have just had a new 7,000-ton steamship built at Philadelphia, and three more of 9,000 tons apiece are under construction. All these will use the Canal, plying between New York and San Francisco and Puget Sound ports; and the firm will, no doubt, send some of its vessels that are now under foreign register, and that visit western coast South American ports by way of Magellan Strait, down the same coast through the Canal.

The International Mercantile Marine Company has secured American registry for the *Finland* and *Kroonland* of its Red Star Line, and with five American-built

A SPECIAL TYPE OF VESSEL TO CARRY GRAIN

"TORRINGTON," OF CARDIFF, THAT CAN LOAD 8,000 TONS OF GRAIN, AND THAT CARRIES WHEAT FROM THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC TO ENGLAND

A FLOATING DRY DOCK

ONE OF THE INVENTIONS OF MODERN BUILDERS THAT HAVE MADE SEA TRAFFIC MORE STABLE BY EXTENDING THE FACILITIES FOR THE QUICK AND CONVENIENT REPAIR OF DAMAGED VESSELS

to Europe by the Strait of Magellan. Another fortnightly service is to be begun in the opposite direction — from Liverpool to Portugal, Spain, Brazil, and Argentina, thence through the Strait and up the western coast to the Canal, to Havana, Cuba, and then back to Europe. It is further reported that this company has placed an order for four new steamers to ply between New York and the West Indies

A VESSEL IN THE MEDITERRANEAN TRADE

THAT IS FEELING THE IMPULSE OF THE NEW WORLD-WIDE VITALITY OF WATER TRANSPORTATION

LOOKING AHEAD TO PANAMA

E "ALASKAN," OF THE AMERICAN-HAWAIIAN SUGAR FLEET THAT WILL SHIFT FROM THE TEHUANTEPEC ROUTE TO THE PANAMA ROUTE AS SOON AS THE CANAL IS COMPLETED, IN PORT AT SAN DIEGO, CAL.

d Central America, calling at Colon, e Atlantic terminus of the Canal, where nnection can be made with the ships ing over the two routes that have been eviously described.

On June 5th, the Hamburg-American Steamship Company invited bids from shipyards at Philadelphia for the construction of six large vessels to be used in the coastwise trade between the Atlantic and

IN THE GROWING ASIATIC TRADE

E "EMPRESS OF INDIA," OF THE CANADIAN PACIFIC'S FLEET OF LINERS THAT RUN TO THE ORIENT, TAKING CARGO AT VANCOUVER, B. C.

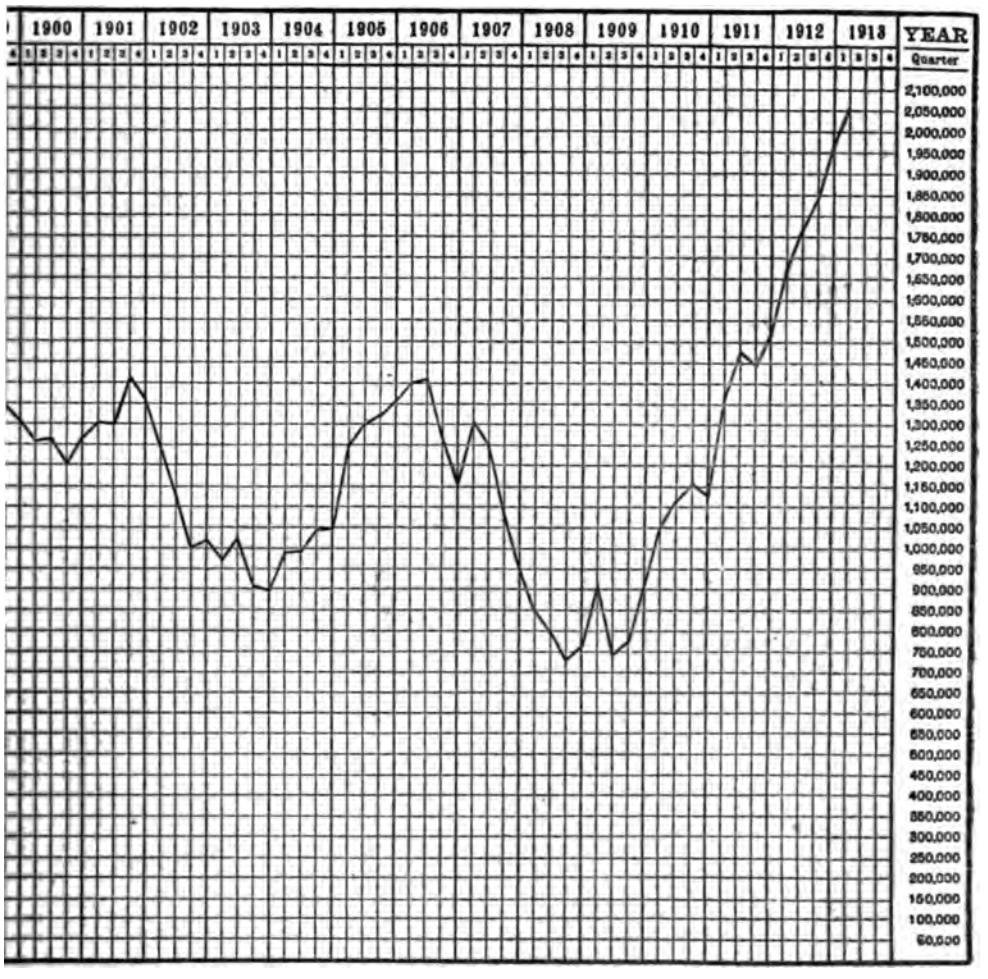
GERMANY'S FOREMOST PORT

HAMBURG, THAT IS ONE OF LONDON'S GREATEST COMPETITORS IN THE EUROPEAN RACE FOR THE BIGGEST SHARE OF THE RICH TRAFFIC WITH AMERICA

THE HARBOR OF NEW YORK

IN WHICH THE CITY AUTHORITIES FIND INCREASING DIFFICULTY IN PROVIDING FACILITIES FOR DOCKING VESSELS FAST ENOUGH TO CARE FOR THE RAPIDLY GROWING COMMERCE OF THE PORT. NEW YORK IS THE POINT OF ORIGIN OF PERHAPS THE MOST PROFITABLE PASSENGER TRAFFIC IN THE WORLD, AS WELL AS OF *PROBABLY THE GREATEST* SEA-FREIGHTING BUSINESS

ic ports of the United States through Panama Canal, each to cost about o,ooo. These vessels, if built, will be ied to American registry and to all privileges of the coastwise laws, but company will not contract definitely ve them constructed until it secures a existing laws, this company will be prepared to at once invest a large amount of capital in the development of a modern and progressive steamship service from coast to coast. Among the tentative routes that have been considered by this company, two encircle South America in both direc-



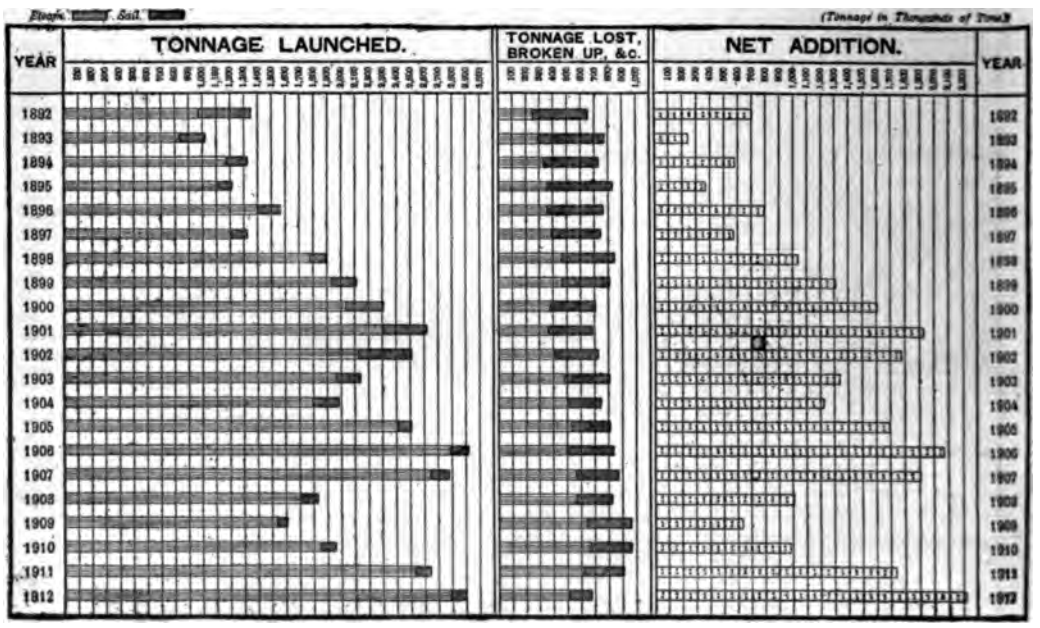
THE REMARKABLE ADVANCE IN BRITISH SHIPBUILDING

OWING THE GROSS TONNAGE OF VESSELS (EXCLUDING WARSHIPS) UNDER CONSTRUCTION AND THE T CONTINUOUS INCREASE DURING THE LAST FORTY-EIGHT MONTHS, TO A POINT FAR ABOVE THE IR HIGHEST RECORD

ral charter permitting the investment reign capital in the American coastwise e. A bill has been introduced into gress permitting foreign-owned but rican-built vessels to engage in the twise trade between the Atlantic and fic oceans, and it is understood that his measure becomes a law, or if a ral charter can be secured under tions through the Canal, one on the outward bound and the other on the return passage, and another possible service for both passengers and freight extends from Mediterranean ports to the Pacific Coast of the United States to take care of the influx of immigrants that may set in from southern Europe to the Pacific Slope.

The North German Lloyd is watching

this world-wide readjustment of ocean routes as a result of the Canal as closely as its competitors, but its officials are not yet ready to issue a definite statement of its plans. Members of the directorate of the Holland-America line are on the Pacific Coast as this article is being written, looking over conditions. Probably the service this company now maintains between Rotterdam and Antwerp, on the one hand, and Havana, various Mexican ports, and New Orleans, on the other, will be extended to ports on the Pacific Coast. This service is at present maintained by



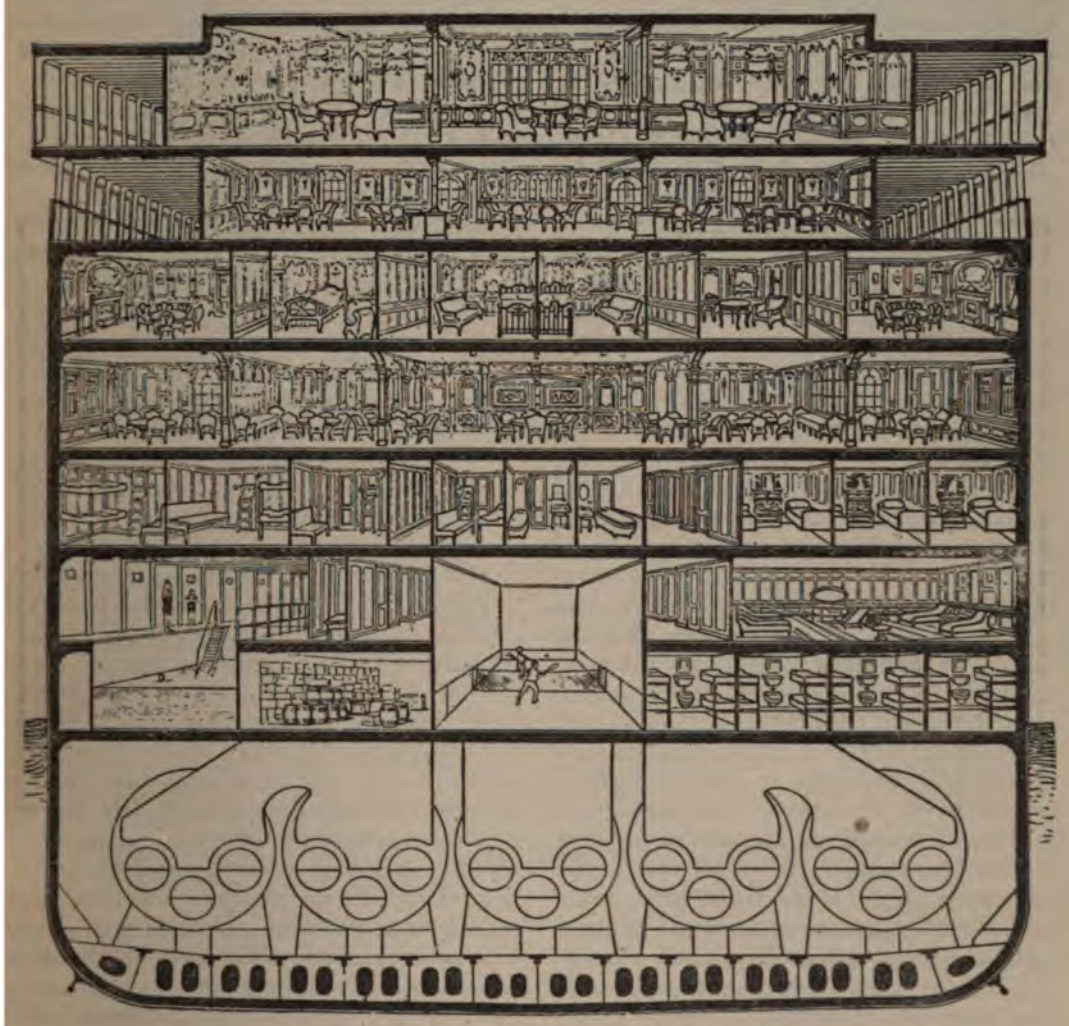
THE RAPID INCREASE IN THE NET TONNAGE OF THE SHIPPING OF THE WORLD

12 freight steamers of from 5,600 to 10,000 tons gross register, named after the dykes of Holland — *Andijk, Maartensdijk,* etc.

Three Japanese steamship companies, the Toyo Kisen Kaisha (Oriental Steamship Company), the Nippon Yusen Kaisha (Japan Mail Steamship Company), and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha (Osaka Mercantile Steamship Company), are planning to establish a joint of service from Yokohama, Kobe, and Nagasaki to New York by way of the Canal. This traffic is estimated at nearly 500,000 tons a year, and consists chiefly of imports into this country from Japan coming to Eastern points by the Northern transcontinental railroads. Our exports to Japan are shipped mainly through the Suez Canal. The Japanese steamship men hope to capture both branches of the trade and have been inspecting docking facilities at New York with a view to berthing their steamships after the Canal is opened. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha is building four new vessels at present that are probably destined for the route to New York direct. Some of the fine steamers now being operated by the three companies to Pacific Coast ports will, no doubt, be diverted to this service.

The following American companies have vessels available for the coast-to-coast service, in addition to those previously enumerated: A. H. Bull & Company, seven steamers of 32,600 tons; Massachusetts Steamship Company, four of 32,000 tons; Coastwise Transportation Company, four of 29,000 tons; J. W. Elwell & Company, three of 12,300 tons; Crowell & Thurlow, two of 10,000 tons; F. R. Gilchrist, one of 6,500 tons. With the companies previously mentioned there is a total of nearly 550,000 tons immediately available for the coastwise fleet. Among the foreign lines likely to use the Canal, in addition to those already enumerated, are the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, New York and South

America Line, New York & Vancouver Line, the Blue Funnel Line, and the Harrison Line. All these are British companies. The two great German steamship companies, "Kosmos" and "Hansa," are making plans for several new routes by way of Panama. The Dutch Royal Mail may extend its West Indian service through to the Pacific, and the Italian and Spanish lines are understood to be considering plans to do so. The Norwegian-American Steamship Line and the Swedish and Danish East Asiatic lines will probably utilize the Canal in new services to the Pacific. The Chilean Steamship Company is organizing a service from Chilean ports northward and a line from Peru has been discussed. The Compagnie Gènèrale Transatlantique (French Line) is also studying the Canal's possibilities, and several French routes to Pacific ports and French Pacific colonies are likely. The steamship divisions of the Canadian Pacific and Grand Trunk railroads also are studying the problem, the exclusion of American vessels owned by transcontinental railroads from the coastwise traffic not applying to Canadian vessels because they will ply between foreign ports.



A CROSS-SECTION OF THE "OLYMPIC"
SHOWING THE LUXURIOUS ARRANGEMENTS THAT ARE TYPICAL OF THE NEWER TRANSATLANTIC VESSELS

There is likely also to be considerable

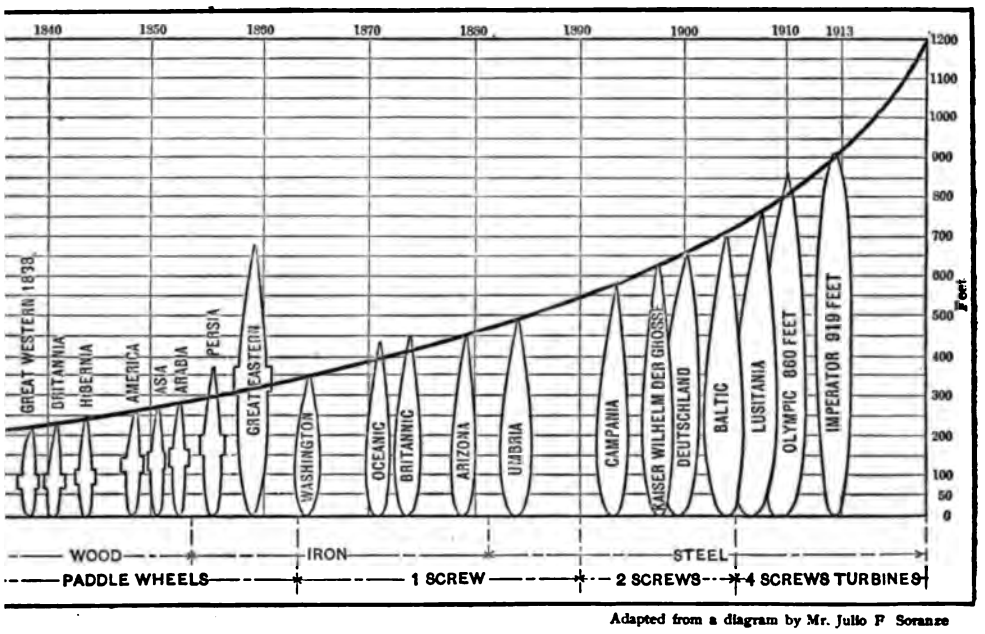
traffic for tramp steamers via the Canal, or for chartered vessels plying over more or less fixed routes with sailings adjusted to meet varying requirements. The West Coast Line, for example, which uses chartered vessels, could readily adjust itself to changed conditions. Its outward bound ships, with cargoes for the lower Western Coast of South America, would probably continue to go by Magellan, and the home trip would very likely be by Panama as cargo is taken on farther north. In the same way the lines of chartered ships running to the Far East will probably continue to go by Suez for ports south of Shanghai and will be diverted to Panama for ports north of there. It has been reported that extensive iron ore deposits have been found in Chile and are owned by an American steel company which plans to exploit them extensively, bringing the ore north in huge ore carriers such as are employed on the Great Lakes and in the service from Bilbao, Spain, to Great Britain. No accurate estimate of this traffic is possible, but if tentative estimates of 500,000 tons a year should be realized a very considerable fleet of chartered vessels would be employed in this service. If the plan of the United Fruit Company should be followed by the steel company, and efforts made to develop a return traffic in American-made goods along the Western Coast of South America such as the fruit company has built up in the Caribbean region, this line might be productive of vast benefit to American manufacturers and give them a very substantial advantage in the keen rivalry that is certain to take place for the trade of that hitherto only partially developed section.

From the foregoing outline it may appear that the traffic department of the Isthmian Canal Commission has been doing some very effective work. Unfortunately, there is no such department, and, apart from some very instructive monographs regarding distances and toll rates, the Commission has left the steamship men to do their own figuring. On Beaver Street, New York, not far from the Produce Exchange, is a sign reading "Manchester Ship Canal Company." This is one of the two offices *maintained by that* company to interest American shippers in routing thei direct to Manchester. Their othe is at Chicago, and similar traffic a are maintained at other important s centres. As a result of this ente promotion work the traffic of the M ter canal has been increased six-fo Manchester is now England's four port. Unless a similar plan is adopt respect to Panama the new Can unquestionably lose thousands and hundreds of thousands of tons of that might otherwise be diverted This $400,000,000 enterprise of the States will soon be a going concer peting for its share of world traffic other enterprises of the kind have It should have a traffic director sufficient appropriation for office equ and for a staff to enable it to take great proposition energetically and tively. For every dollar expended an organization the Government obtain a hundred dollars in in revenues. This important deficie the preparation work incident to o the Canal should be remedied

The Canal has, no doubt, stimula world-wide movement toward e shipping facilities, but changes ar made, harbors are being improve and larger vessels are being put in along routes that will be in no way a by the opening of the Canal. In across every sea new lines are planned and existing services are improved. This world-wide te among steamship owners account large measure for the unusually shipbuilding records. Most of th construction work does not sho radical changes in the design of It is simply a universal movem supply something larger, faster, an luxurious than the best that has h been offered. In all ships, from the but admirably appointed, new boats ded for West Indian or other limited to leviathans like the new *Aquitan* creased size and more magnificent ment are the order of the day. C speed is no longer the chief goal builders of the ships of to-day alt most of the newer vessels are relative

reight vessels there are some interest-anges in type. For example, thirty- those launched in Great Britain last vere built on the Isherwood system of udinal framing. About an equal er and tonnage were built on this n in other countries, including several : United States. In this system the verse frames and beams are fitted at y-spaced intervals, forming a trans- belt around the vessel and being d directly to the shell plating and The strong transverse girder frames

French builders have made some noteworthy installations of Diesel heavy oil engines in vessels of considerable size. One of these was a four-masted ship launched at Rouen, with Diesel auxiliary engines, and another was a large new cargo steamer equipped with Diesel engines as the sole motive power. Oil engines for auxiliary purposes are reported from nearly every shipbuilding country; and a considerable number of vessels are to be fitted with these motors exclusively. In general, however, new construction for



Adapted from a diagram by Mr. Julio F Soranze

THE GROWTH OF THE OCEAN LINERS

SHOWING THE STEADY INCREASE IN SIZE AS THE MATERIALS OF CONSTRUCTION AND THE MEANS OF ULSION HAVE BEEN IMPROVED. THE "GREAT EASTERN" WAS A FAILURE AND IT WAS NOT EQUALLED ENGTH UNTIL THE "BALTIC" WAS LAUNCHED

otted around their outer edges so that are fitted with continuous longitudinal iers, not only at the decks, but on the top, and bottom. This system des greatly increased space for the ge of cargo, and especially larger artments so that the handling of is greatly facilitated.

ring the last year eighteen steamers launched for the transportation of bulk. The oil engine is a mechanism owing interest and importance for as well as inland shipping. Though s been adopted thus far mainly for n *cargo carriers of the smaller sizes,* freighters as well as passenger steamships has been along the prevailing lines, save that the tendency everywhere is toward larger vessels of each type, with correspondingly increased power. In freighters there is also a noteworthy tendency toward slightly increased speed.

The demand for ocean carriers of all kinds has been so keen during the last few years that the tonnage lost, broken up, etc., shows a considerable decrease. The tonnage of vessels that have reported by Lloyd's as lost for the last five years is as tons in 1908; 939,232 to

tons in 1910; 884,843 tons in 1911; 680,154 tons in 1912 — the last being the smallest total reported for twenty years. Even the long continued process of demolition of the world's fleet of sailing ships has been temporarily suspended, the number of this type lost or broken up being also the smallest since 1892, which is as far back as the table in Lloyd's annual summary on this subject extends. The result of this exceptionally small deduction from the world's supply of merchant vessels is that the net addition for 1912 surpassed previous records by more than 100,000 tons.

How long the present era of prosperity in maritime circles will continue is a question that no one can answer. It is probable that the great amount of tonnage added to the world's merchant fleets during 1912, or now under construction, will be enough to meet all immediate requirements, especially as a considerable part of the Panama Canal traffic will not be new business but simply existing traffic diverted to different routes.

An element that is tending automatically to slow down the rate of shipbuilding is the steady rise in the cost of production. Reliable reports declare that many American yards have turned away business during the last year because their terms were higher than steamship owners were able or willing to pay, and this fact is cited to explain why, in a period of maritime activity without precedent in the world, and with an exceptionally good outlook for new American shipping, the amount of new work under construction in American yards is materially less than it has been on several former occasions. In Scotland several firms of shipbuilders are at present practically losing money on work that was booked some time ago, owing to the subsequent rise in cost of materials and labor.

Nevertheless, the volume of shipbuilding now in course of completion will make this the record shipbuilding year in practically every country in the world except our own. The volume of maritime business, both passenger and freight, is also at practically the highest level ever reported and shows no sign of diminution — on the contrary, everything points to a steady increase in this regard for several years to come, barring such periodical seasons of financial depression as now and then retard activity in certain countries. The one jarring note in all this record of prosperity is that under our obsolete navigation laws American citizens are practically barred from the largest and most attractive part of all this traffic, the trade overseas, and that the American flag on a merchant steamship seems destined still to remain one of the rarest sights in hundreds of seaports that are thronged with the ships of other nations.

ABRAHAM CAHAN, A LEADER OF THE JEWS

THE EDITOR OF THE "FORWARD" AND THE UNIQUE PLACE HE HOLDS IN NEW YORK — HIS ESCAPE FROM RUSSIA AND HIS EARLY LIFE IN NEW YORK

BY
FRENCH STROTHER

ONE day, thirty-one years ago, Abraham Cahan, a young teacher in a government school in Russia, got a letter that puzzled him. The letter *was from his mother.* She told the family *news and the gossip* of the neighborhood about this and that acquaintance of his boyhood. Then came these sentences: "You will be sorry to hear that your school-days chum, —— ——, died a few days ago. He was taken down with a severe cold and died suddenly. They buried him deep."

Young Cahan pondered these words

ılly. "Buried him deep" is a Yid-
:atch-phrase of double meaning, used
:ally, even flippantly. His mother
. serious woman: why had she written
ıgly of the tragic death of a dear
l? Suddenly he guessed her purpose,
hat night, when the police broke into
n's lodgings, he had fled. —— and
ıd been members of the "Reds," and
were still revolutionary Socialists.
ia is "cold." To their friends, exiles
buried deep."

-day Mr. Cahan sits in an office on the
floor of a building that is owned by a
paper that he has built up to be a
business property and a great
icanizing agency among the Jewish
e of the East Side of New York.
men of his race have performed a
er service to the United States than
r he has taught hundreds of thousands
migrants what America means, what
duties to it are, and how they can
ne worthy citizens of this country.
men have been more useful to their
/s, for he has interpreted to his people
ıewildering customs and language of
new home, and in many other ways
ıelped to ease the trials of their life
new land. Besides these things, he
/ritten novels that Mr. William Dean
:lls has described as works of genius.
hey were written seventeen years ago,
oon afterward he found a new means
:rary expression in the *Forward*, and
ı to develop it after the original ideals
have raised it to be one of the great
als of New York. His own story is a
nce of American opportunity.

; boyhood was spent near Vilna, the
ıl of Lithuania, in Russia. His
r was a rabbi who spent his days in
meditation and in the study of the
l writings of the Jews. Young Cahan
:arly sent to the synagogue to get
:hodox Jewish education — an educa-
in religious history and law, and
else. But even then, when he was
ten years old, he was eager for a wider
. Secretly he paid a Gentile boy
bor his whole allowance of three
ks (about two cents) a week to teach
he hated "Russian learning" — such
ır and forbidden things as arithmetic
and geography. When he was detected, his father, strangely enough, condoned his offense and encouraged him by sending him to a State normal school. There he learned not only the things that the Russian Government requires its school teachers to know, but Socialism as well — picked up in a secret club at the risk of his liberty or even life. He left the school at twenty-one a Nihilist. He was sent to a distant province to teach. There his rooms were searched several times by the police, but he had been wise enough to destroy all contraband writings as soon as he had read them, and they found nothing. Then his mother's letter came, warning him that he would be arrested on general suspicion, and he put off the brass-buttoned, blue, swallow-tailed uniform of a government teacher, and fled by night.

Six weeks of wandering brought him out of the country at Brody, in Austria, across the border from southwestern Russia. Here he had about decided to go to Paris to join the Nihilist headquarters, when he heard of a group of fellow countrymen who were going to New York and decided to travel with them.

When he landed in New York, on June 7, 1882, he found there comparatively few people of his race and nationality, for the big immigration of Russian Jews began after the massacres of that year. At once he faced the problem of earning a living. He met it, as thousands have met it since, by becoming a workman, first in a cigar factory and then in a can factory. Meantime he must learn English. He bought a copy of George Eliot's "Mill on the Floss," in the old Seaside Library edition, for twenty cents. At night in his garret room in Clinton Street he read the book, underscoring every word he did not understand and copying it into a pocket notebook with the definition, taken from a polyglot dictionary, after it. Then by day, whenever he had a few spare minutes, he took out his notebook and studied the new words. The first page of the "Mill on the Floss" was black with scorings: he recalls with pride that the last page was clean except for one word underlined.

In those days he breakfasted on stale bread at two loaves for five cents, both

because it was cheap and because, by putting it in his pockets and so using no dishes, he could both study and eat.

Within a year he had written an article in English on the coronation of Tsar Alexander III that was accepted and published by the New York *World*. Soon he was able to make his living by teaching English to Russians on the East Side. Every moment he could spare from his work he devoted to learning about America. One day he heard that Evarts and Blaine were to speak at the Grand Opera House in New York. He wanted to hear them and he knew he could not understand even a little of what they said unless he heard every word distinctly, for he still was so uncertain in the spoken language that he had been debarred from the platform of a Socialist meeting because he could not make himself understood. So he went to the stage entrance of the opera house and, by mingling with the guests of honor who were invited to sit on the platform, he was permitted to enter with them and get a seat only a few feet from the speakers. He was not quite sure he had understood fully even then until he read in the morning's paper that Evarts had made a very dull speech, and then he was satisfied, because he had been greatly disappointed in Evarts's powers as an orator.

A few years after he landed in New York, the *Sun* published a series of sketches of life on the East Side which he wrote. By such work, and by articles on American politics for Russian magazines, he made enough money to give up teaching. In 1889, he was editor of the *Arbeiter Zeitung*. Then he wrote a sombre novel of East Side life, entitled "Yekl." It brought him unexpected praise. One evening, when he came home to his flat in the East Side, he found a card on his table, with a penciled note on it that the caller regretted failing to see him and asking that he call on him. The name on the card was "William Dean Howells." Mr. Cahan had never seen him. He paid the call and was encouraged by Mr. Howells to write more.

A few years later he had an opportunity to go on the staff of an American daily paper, and so he went to the *Commercial Advertiser*, of New York, as a police reporter. His object was to study life in its most dramatic phases. Mr. Lincoln Steffens was the city editor, Mr. Norman Hapgood the dramatic editor, and other members of the staff were Mr. Hutchins Hapgood, Mr. Edwin Lefevre, Mr. Carl Hovey, and Mr. Ralph Roy Wilson, all now well-known to the reading public. This group, with which Mr. Cahan was soon intimate, used to gather in the "local room" after the paper went to press at three o'clock in the afternoon and spend hours in discussing literature and life.

Mr. Cahan soon found that he was more interested in literature and life than he was in getting the prosaic facts for police "stories." He would go out to get the details of an arrest and bring back instead a story of an old fiddler, whom he had met by the way, who had just encountered the tragedy of his life in the destruction of his most precious violin. Mr. Steffens saw the "human interest" value of these stories, however, and made them the exclusive work of Mr. Cahan, who was one of the first to write the kind of interviews that are now common in the newspapers — interviews which are also character studies of the men who are interviewed. When Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Van Wyck were rival candidates for governor of New York, Mr. Cahan spent nearly a whole night at political conferences in which Mr. Croker, of Tammany Hall, was a participant, and he wrote a character sketch of Mr. Croker, based on that experience, which aroused much interest when it was published, for it revealed the human and personal side of the Tammany leader which the public had never seen nor imagined.

The Spanish War gave Mr. Cahan an opportunity to develop his fondness for drawing word pictures of the human side of the news. He interviewed wounded marines upon their return to New York, and made of their personal narratives vivid and moving pictures of war as the men who fight see it. Especially powerful was his story of a soldier's own account of his sensations the first time he was under fire in battle — a curious confirmation of the dramatic record in Walter Crane's imaginings in "The Red Badge of Courage."

ıis period Mr. Cahan found time to a novel, "The Imported Bride-n," and to write short stories for the ıry, *Scribner's*, *Atlantic Monthly*, *opolitan*, and other magazines.

t after five years as a reporter, Mr. n's opportunity came to make a news-r after his own ideals. He had made utation among Socialists as a speaker writer. The *Jewish Daily Forward*, gan of the Jewish Socialists, was in a financial condition. The managers l him to edit and manage it, and he ıted their offer of a free hand and a salary.

e *Forward* was then made up after ıld-fashioned ideas of foreign news-rs. Its "news" was mostly a record uropean and American politics. Its rials were scholarly "leading articles" larxian Socialism. The whole paper vritten in highly Germanized Yiddish. :. Cahan changed all this. He told :porters to look for the human interest e news, and to write it in the Yiddish :t of the homes of the Ghetto. "Say mamma would," he told them when ame across a stilted account of an :. And the reporters understood, ıine chances in ten, "mamma" was a vd, wrinkled, clear-seeing daughter of l whose words had the stinging direct-and the homely simplicity that every-e makes the people's language vivid ılain. Mr. Cahan himself brought the rial page within the limits of his own ition. One of his first editorials was "Pocket Handkerchiefs," why his ers should teach their children to ' them, and their relation to health. ıe old-fashioned Socialists were ked. They demanded to know of Mr. ın what relation he saw between pocket kerchiefs and "the common owner-of the means of production and dis-tion," which is Socialism. "Just " Mr. Cahan replied: "Pocket hand-ıiefs are an essential of people who to be happy in a modern, civilized nunity. Our people need to know Socialism is not an end, but a means cated by enlightened people like elves to make ourselves and our ıbors happy. Therefore, by preaching the use of pocket handkerchiefs, even to those relatively few people that do not know the advantages of using them, I am preaching practical Socialism."

Mr. Cahan struck upon the homely things that were close to the needs of his readers in their oftentimes tragic efforts to adapt themselves to the strange new life in which they found themselves in America. For example:

After he had edited the *Forward* for several years, he received a letter from a Jewish boy who was a student in the University of the City of New York. His association with boys in better circumstances and of longer residence in America had taught him new standards of living. He had learned to know and appreciate the use of separate dishes at the table for each person to eat from. But his father was an old-country man, from a remote village in Roumania, content with the customs of his poor, untrained parents and averse to change. So at home the big bowl of stew sat in the middle of the table and every member of the family dipped his spoon into the common vessel and ate. The boy loved his old father, for the father had made many sacrifices to give him his education. But he was humiliated by this barbaric custom, and could not bring his friends home because of it. Wouldn't Mr. Cahan write an editorial about dishes? The father believed in the *Forward* only less than in his Bible, and would surely be convinced if he read there that dishes were practically a necessity in America.

So Mr. Cahan wrote a kindly editorial in which he pictured such a case as the boy had described, argued gently the hygienic reasons for separate vessels for food, and concluded by suggesting that the proper thing for a father to do in such circumstances would be to send the wife out to buy a set of dishes. A few days later he got another letter from the boy, full of thanks, for the father had read the editorial and followed its advice. In this family, as in many others, Mr. Cahan was the means of preventing the oft-repeated tragedy that wrecks many immigrant families' happiness — the gap that opens and widens between parents and

children as the young people learn the new language and new customs and drift away from the old folk because they cannot follow in the new path.

But Mr. Cahan made his most striking and original contribution to journalism by beginning a department that he called "A Bunch of Letters." A believer in realism as the true philosophy of literature, he applied it to the romance of real life. He published an appeal to his readers that they send him the record of the biggest thing in their own experiences. "Every one of you," he said, "has one story to tell from your own life — a humorous incident, a dramatic event, a tragedy, a great experience with love or passion — a story with every quality of great fiction, but better than fiction because it is true." At first the replies were disappointing, but at length one letter came that proved to be the first of hundreds that have been published in the *Forward*. Men and women began to make the department almost a confessional, and opened their hearts to tell the story that they had been burning to tell to sympathetic ears. Naturally, most of the more serious writers asked that their names be withheld. These letters are the most eagerly read part of the paper. At least thirty of them are received daily, and from one column to three columns full of them are published.

One letter, for example, was from a woman who faced this problem: She had divorced her husband in the Old Country. After she came to America, she had married again, but had not told her second husband that she had ever been married. One day she saw the first man on the street in New York. She knew that sooner or later he would learn of her and that then her husband would surely find out the truth. He was a very jealous man. What should she do: tell him, or wait and trust to chance? Mr. Cahan advised her to tell. A few weeks later she wrote again, a letter full of reproaches. She had told her husband and he had been very angry and now their lives were full of unhappiness. Another interval, and she wrote a third letter, of gratitude and thanksgiving: the husband had had no peace, had seen the other man's face constantly before him, and was tormented with hatred; at last he had really seen the man, and his mind was at rest. The actual vision of his enemy had reassured him that his wife could no longer love such a man, and they were reconciled.

Dozens of letters told the familiar story — familiar among immigrants — of the son who had left Russia many years ago, who wrote regularly once a week for a year or more, then once a month, then once or twice a year, then never. All raised the cry, Where is he? May we hope ever to see him again? And in many cases these letters have reached the men whose mothers wrote them and have brought about the reunion of families.

From the "Bunch of Letters" grew up naturally another function of the *Forward*. People who could not or would not write came to talk with the editor about the problems of their little world, to ask for counsel. For years Mr. Cahan saw all these people personally and found their experience much the same as the experiences of those who wrote. Now he has not time to devote to them, but he has trained an assistant who receives and advises from thirty to sixty people a day.

Mr. Cahan carried his human relationship with his readers beyond the printed page. When the price of the necessities of life soared higher than he thought it should last year, and his people were complaining of the prohibitive cost of food, he organized a housewives' strike against the market dealers, and forced them to reduce their prices by a practical boycott of their shops. A similar strike of tenants against excessive rents was also successfully managed by him.

His editorial policy has run the daily circulation of the *Forward* up from 6,000 to 150,000 copies. His name is affectionately known to practically every resident of the East Side and to many thousands of other people in New York and in all parts of America. He once laughingly said that he knew nearly every Jew in New York, "from Big Jack Zelig to Jacob Schiff." And three years ago, when he celebrated his fiftieth birthday, thousands of people of the East Side crowded a great auditorium to show him their appreciation.

TOO MANY CHURCHES

HOW COMPETITION REDUCES THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THEIR WORK

BY

EVERETT T. TOMLINSON

WHY are ministers among the most poorly paid workers in every community? The amount of capital invested in education, time, preparation, and ries is as great as that of most other ssions. Is the condition due to ineffi- y or are the churches niggardly and hey take advantage of the spirit of :cration which is the compelling motive many men in this calling? A careful / drives an investigator to the conclu- that no one cause fully accounts for ing conditions, but that the chief cause : over-churching of many communities. marvel is, not that salaries are so low, hat they can be so high!

ıe spirit of independence and religious ty particularly manifest two or three rations ago led to a multiplication of minations and churches. There was irit of competition, even of rivalry, gh it was not recognized by either of : terms. As some one has said, "We sects and insects, some of the bodies o small and pestiferous." The result at to-day we are facing problems that born of a zeal that frequently was ·ced from knowledge.

st what the salaries of ministers are ıe more prominent denominations is n in this table, compiled from the t reports of the Census Bureau:

RAGE SALARIES OF MINISTERS OUTSIDE THE LARGE CITIES

ıern Baptist Convention (White)	$ 334
ples	526
d Brethren	547
odist Episcopal (South)	681
ıern Baptist Convention (White)	683
odist Episcopal (North)	741
:ran	744
yterian Church in U. S. (South)	857
Congregational	$880
Reformed Church in America	923
Presbyterian Church in U.S.A. (North)	977
Universalists	987
Protestant Episcopal	994
Unitarian	1,221

The average leaders of other religious organizations in the United States are paid as follows:

Greek Orthodox Church	$720
Russian Orthodox Church	731
Buddhist	840
Jewish Congregations	841

The number of individual congregations to which these men minister ranges from 64,701 among the Methodists and 54,880 among the Baptists down to 1,147 among the Friends. Next to the Methodists and Baptists, the Presbyterian Church has more congregations (15,506) than any other. The Roman Catholics have 12,482 and the Protestant Episcopal Church 6,845.

In the United States there are 192,795 church edifices providing a seating capacity for 58,536,830 people. The total value of church property is $1,257,575,876. The highest average of membership per organization is found in Rhode Island, where the figures are 522. On the other hand Oklahoma has an average membership per organization of only 58, followed in order by Florida, 66; Arkansas, 69; and West Virginia, 75. An average membership of less than 100 is reported by twelve states; of 100 or more, and less than 200, in 23 states; of 200 or more, and less than 300, 7 states; and of 300 or more, 7 states. The average number per organization is 157. The average value of church property is $6,756, and the debt is $3,214. The average encumbrance upon church property varies from $12,400 in New York,

$10,983 in the District of Columbia, and $8,608 in Massachusetts, to $960 in Kansas, where the average membership is 92; to $1,013 in Florida, where the average membership is 66; and to $483 in Alabama, which has an average membership of 93.

A careful study of the data presented shows that there are 192,795 church edifices with an average of 157 members per organization, and that the debt of the average body is nearly 50 per cent. of the value of the church property. This implies a heavy tax on the membership even before its legitimate work is begun. With a membership of 157, it is estimated that at least two thirds of the members are women. This leaves 52 male members, of whom doubtless a large proportion are boys too young to be of much financial assistance. If only one third is deducted for non-resident members, there are left approximately twenty to thirty men upon whom must fall the chief burden of support of the "average" church. What such a tax would be if raised for other than church purposes is apparent.

The opinions of certain careful and candid religious leaders have been obtained in every state. These reports agree that, in certain places at least, over-churching of communities has been carried to an extreme. For example, the response from a minister in Maine says:

> In at least one fourth of the towns of Maine there are more Protestant Churches than there is a demand for. But the problem is being worked out. Protestantism must plan for the future, as do our Catholic friends, and we must plan economically. The great trouble is that so many inefficient men go into the ministry.

There is no question that there is over-churching in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and many other states in the Middle West; and the response from Michigan blames the same cause for the low salaries of ministers. From New York the reply was similar:

> Over-churching is not the great reason, but it is very certainly *one* great reason for the inadequate salaries paid in this state. . . . One concrete illustration may serve you. When our Board made our appropriations this year *we wrote one* church, which we had been helping, *that we ought* to expect the church to pay a larger proportion of the minister's salar The reply was "that as they were one of s churches in a village of 1,300 they did not f able to raise more." I think that this is tr of a large number of our churches.

On the other hand, my correspondent Indiana believes that over-churching is n the greatest cause of inadequate chur support, and the reply from Illinois sa that "over-churching and low salar are both prevalent, though their interre tion is more apparent than real."

In the far West, as is natural, there a some places where there are not churcl enough, but even from such a state Colorado comes this report: "In almo every instance the low salary is direc in consequence of the community suppo ing too many churches. Towns of 500 1,000 population containing from three five churches of different denominatio cannot but feel a heavy financial strai

It is possible to select certain represen tive regions where conditions will thr some light on our problem. The follow table is made from a study of the churcl in southern New Hampshire:

	POPULATION	NO. CHUR
Deerfield	917	2
Dover	13,247	12
Exeter	5,000	9
Newton	950	3
North Conway	3,400	8
Northwood	1,300	4
Plaistow	1,200	4
Portsmouth	11,269	12
Seabrook	1,600	4
Somersworth	7,500	6
Stratham	601	3

In this district there is a church every 701 people.

The adjacent state of Vermont furnis a similar example:

	POPULATION	NO. CHUR
Bennington	6,000	6
Brandon	2,000	5
Castleton	1,000	4
Centre Rutland	200	1
E. Hubbardton	470	2
E. Poultney	300	2
Fair Haven	3,500	8
Fowler	200	1
Hydeville	150	2

. . . . .	600	1
hester	2,200	5
on	200	2
letown Springs .	150	1
Bennington . .	800	3
ord	425	5
ney	2,500	5
al	150	2
or	1,200	3
nd	13,500	14
sbury	500	3
ngford	700	3
aven	300	2
awlet	500	3
utland	4,500	11

y informant writes me that in the ory included in the places mend in the above table there are "more a dozen other churches, mostly Prot-t, concerning which I am unable to you information." Not including "more than a dozen," we have an age of one church in the region to about 447 people.

group of cities and towns in New State present the following suggesfigures:

	POPULATION	NO. OF CHURCHES
ny	100,253	77
es	24,709	18
ick Falls . . .	5,189	6
anicsville . . .	6,634	5
. . . . .	76,813	73
erford	3,146	6
ervliet	15,074	15

most of these places there are additional religious organizations which are included in this table.

rural region in New York State shows rotestant church for every 287 people he population:

	POPULATION	NO. OF CHURCHES
astota	3,247	4
enovia	1,861	5
tenango	1,678	5
ayter	538	4
on	500	3
rgetown	200	2
ilton	1,689	5
anon	250	2
lison	309	3
risville	500	3
Woodstock . .	300	2
t Eaton	400	2

From the region beyond Kansas City, Mo., the following table is made:

	POPULATION	NO. OF CHURCHES
Cummings	200	2
Easton	500	3
Hebron	500	3
Holton	4,000	12
Kickapoo	300	2
Lansing	1,000	4
McLouth	1,000	5
Valley Falls	1,500	8

My informant writes, "People in the Southwest stand pretty close to their own church, even if it is small. They want that or nothing." And "it is small" — there being a Protestant church for every 231 people!

The Presbyterian Home Mission Society (North) has been making some investigations, selecting certain counties which would be typical of certain phases of life in the various states, and from their studies I have selected Webster County, Ky., with 20,974 white population and 68 Protestant churches. The total membership of these churches is 5,997, or 32 per cent. of the total white population. The average membership is less than 90, and 54 churches have ministers one fourth of the time or less. That is, 82 per cent. of the churches in this county have one fourth or less of the time of a minister. The average church budget is $328, and the average wage paid by a church to the minister is $183. In this region there are examples of communities of 740 people trying to support five churches. In Gibson County, Tenn., which has a population of 41,629, there are 179 churches. There is a white church for every 224 people, and one church in every four and eight tenths square miles. Ninety-five of the churches have preaching one quarter of the time. The following table has an interest of its own:

THE RECORD OF THE LAST DECADE

PERCENTAGE OF 47 TOWN CHURCHES		PERCENTAGE OF 87 COUNTRY CHURCHES
49	Growing	32
9	Stationary	16
21	Losing	20
2	Dying	9
2	Dead	7
17	Organized within Ten years	16

The average salary paid by the country church is $108, and the average salary of the town church $455.

In the printed report is included a photograph of four churches in a row, three of which have preaching once a month; one, twice a month, and there is no resident minister in the town!

In the spring of 1909, a joint committee composed of representatives of most of the leading Protestant home mission societies was formed to investigate conditions in certain states.

This committee selected Colorado, a typical Western state, and at once began their investigations there with some exceedingly interesting results. "Nearly 90 per cent. of home mission aid to-day goes either where there is no duplication of effort whatever, or to the swiftly growing cities." Whatever duplication was found naturally belonged to the regions in which this small percentage was expended. Exceptional instances of a town with 400 people and four churches receiving home mission aid to the amount of $660, and of another of 300 people with six churches receiving $530 of such aid, "call for prompt and careful scrutiny."

The committee reports, however, that there is much more over-looking than overlapping. There were 133 places found, ranging in population from 150 to 1,000, without Protestant churches of any kind; 100 of these are also without a Roman Catholic church. There are 428 communities that are of sufficient importance to have post offices, but that are without churches. There are whole counties with no adequate religious work, of which the committee cites several examples. Of the sixty counties in the state, at least eighteen appear to be without adequate church work of any kind.

The whole investigation seems to point conclusively to the fact that the rural sections are suffering more than the cities. This condition is not confined to any locality East or West. Many churches whose active work has ceased are not yet dead, being kept alive by unwise aid. Without question, over-churching has been a predominant cause in producing present conditions, but it does not follow that if the conditions could be changed sal at once would be increased. Tradi local conceptions, and unwillingnes enlarge this support are still preva

The over-churching primarily is due to the efforts of the present genera The condition largely is the outcon the unwise zeal of former workers believed that by multiplying chu they were increasing instead of divi their strength. The slogan, "a church every day," in places has drawn the line of attack until it has crum from sheer weakness or thinness.

The condition to-day is recognize many states and an honest effort is l made to remedy it in most of the reli bodies.

The tax upon many communities i support of more churches than the reli needs of the place demand is heavy. average debt of half the value of the ch property had been a fixed overhead ch

Union or federated churches do not the problem, and in most instances soon die.

Federated churches only touch surface of the problem, still leaving underlying causes unchanged. The aries in federated churches are no l than they were in the individual chu that federated.

Among many religious bodies ineffici is increased by lack of care in the selec of men for the ministry.

Protestant churches suffer much than Catholic from over-churching. latter churches are unified, the formei not and in many places are compet among themselves.

If over-churching has produced a dition in which it is well-nigh impos for many churches to support their m ters, the recognition of the condition i first step toward improvement, thoug effect may not be seen in the pre generation. Improvement may not c speedily, but it can never come efficiency is recognized as a logical ment in extension. It is as necessar weigh as to count. Religion may needed in business. It is no less cer that unbusinesslike methods cannot even zealous efforts successful.

THE MARCH OF THE CITIES

COLLEGE TRAINING FOR COMMERCIAL SECRETARIES

A NEW era has opened in the work of the chambers of commerce of the cities of the United States by the new course in secretarial training ı will be opened to graduate students ırvard University this fall. Remark- results have been achieved by such :s as the Chamber of Commerce of ɔn and the Chamber of Commerce of ıgo and the Chamber of Commerce of Angeles under leadership that has oped naturally with the growth of this of organization. But these bodies drawn upon the best constructive y of the country and have been able ıld it because they have been able to large salaries.

t there are now more than 4,500 com- ial organizations in the United States more than 1,000 of sufficient impor- : to justify membership in the Cham- f Commerce of the United States of ica. Doubtless hundreds of these ızations are less efficient than they t be. It is time for a clearing-house established that shall put at the serv- all these bodies the knowledge of the methods of developing the commercial ests of these communities. This is the Graduate School of Business inistration of Harvard University ecided to do toward this ideal:

ıas opened a course that will cover two ears and that will be open to college ıates only. In the first year students is school may select five full courses the following: Business Law, Ac- ing, Commercial Organization, strial Organization, Business Statis- Work and Methods of Trade Bodies, cipal Government, Railroad Organi- n, and Investments.

the second year, four courses are red — in Problems in Trade Body ıgement, Business Policy, Corpora- Finance, and The Railroad and the Shipper — and a choice may be selected from the following: Commercial Organization, Foreign Trade, European Trade, and South American Trade.

Practical experience in trade body management will be given by an arrangement with the Boston Chamber of Commerce under which the students will be given tasks in the various departments of that body under ordinary working conditions to work out definite practical problems such as they will confront later, wherever they may go. As the Boston Chamber of Commerce is one of the largest and one of the most efficient commercial organizations in the country, this training will be invaluable. The following quotation from the announcement of the courses gives some idea of their scope:

> The various forms of activity in which chambers of commerce and similar bodies engage are examined in the light of the actual experience of some of the more progressive organizations. The subjects covered include various aspects of the supervision of trading, such as inspection of grain and other commodities, control of warehouses, vigilance work, etc. They also include some of the methods for city development employed by trade bodies, such as methods for securing new industries, methods for bettering existing industrial conditions, railway rate activity, internal transportation problems, etc. The course also provides for a comparison of the organization and powers of chambers of commerce and similar bodies in the United States with those in some of the chief European countries and a survey of the federation movement both in the United States and abroad.

Similar courses are under consideration by the officers of the Wharton School of Commerce of the University of Pennsylvania and by the officers of the University of Wisconsin. Professional rank for the leaders in organized commercial development will lend a new dignity and a new seriousness to the work of commercial bodies throughout the United States.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ABOUT FARM LANDS

97.—*Q.* A man whom I have known since boyhood is selling land in Florida, well located on the Caloosahatchee River, not far from Fort Myers, for $46.50 an acre. Two other friends have bought and are already down there developing their land. I am thinking of buying ten acres, having grape fruit trees set out, and going down to attend to them for a few months every winter when they reach a bearing age. What do you advise?

A. To repeat our invariable advice, we would not buy land anywhere from a best friend, a brother, or any one else until we had seen it. The land may be excellent and its highest commendation is the satisfaction of men already there; but how do you know that *you* will like the country and the work and be able to market crops at a profit? Your plan of giving only a few months' attention every year is wholly impracticable unless you put the place in the hands of some one else — and if you do that you are not really farming at all.

98.—*Q.* Kindly tell me how to obtain a guide or instructions for judging and buying land for agricultural purposes. Anything that can be used by an inexperienced land buyer will do.

A. The only safe guide in buying land, as in buying horses intelligently, is experience. The best written advice we know of is contained in Volume 1 of L. H. Bailey's "Cyclopedia of American Agriculture" and in T. F. Hunt's "How to Choose a Farm," (both published by the Macmillan Co.). In the "Garden and Farm Almanac" for 1913, published by Doubleday, Page & Co., you will find a score card for farms, devised and used by the New York State College of Agriculture, that should be useful to you.

99.—*Q.* In what part of Arkansas should a person from the North look for good, moderate priced farm land that is likely to increase in value?

A. It depends first on the type of farming to be pursued. On the rolling Ozark country of the northwestern part of the state, general farming, fruit-growing, and stock-raising are most profitable. As the land is cleared and the country settled, values should rise considerably. Farther south and east, the rich, more level soils produce abundant cotton and corn. Here values are somewhat steadier, but diversified farming and improved methods should increase the worth of farms even here. Then there is a section along the Mississippi River which, when reclaimed, is well adapted to rice-growing. Land here increases greatly in value when drained, but the operation is ordinarily extensive and costly.

100.—*Q.* I have considered going into commercial bulb and flower growing in either lower Delaware, Maryland, or Virginia. What is your opinion of the location and of the opportunities in that line?

A. Openings can often be found near large villages, towns, and cities for the sale of cut flowers and plants of both outdoor and greenhouse culture. The localities you mention would, of course, give you the benefit of a lengthened season and less expensive land than places near northern centres. The only large eastern bulb growing section is around Petersburg, Va. You might, however, find other locations where soil and climatic conditions satisfy the rather fastidious requirements of the industry. These are, briefly, a plentiful supply of water, within six or eight inches of the surface, to permit rapid growth; a loose, well drained top soil; and a period of dry, warm weather at the end of the growing season, to permit the ripening and to prevent the rotting of the bulbs.

101.—*Q.* I would like information as to Stanton County, Kansas — land prices, crops, transportation, etc.

A. Although farm property there increased 349 per cent. between 1900 and 1910, we hardly consider it a section of farm opportunities. At the latter time there were only 263 farms, covering 35 per cent. of the land area, of which only 15 per cent. was improved; the rainfall averages only 17 inches a year; dry farming is hard and often precarious; irrigating can be done only from a partially investigated underflow supply; and transportation facilities are extremely poor, no railroad lines running into the county. The total value of crops in 1910 was $60,240, — 9,400 acres of hay and forage, 2,643 acres of broom corn, and 2,250 acres of kaffir corn comprising the chief items. The land averages about $7 an acre in price.

The World's Work

ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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MR. HOWARD ELLIOTT

THE NEW HEAD OF THE NEW YORK, NEW HAVEN & HARTFORD RAILROAD SYSTEM, WHOSE SELECTION TO SUCCEED MR. CHARLES S. MELLEN SEEMS LIKELY TO BE THE BEGINNING OF A NEW ERA OF GOOD-WILL TOWARD THAT CORPORATION [See "The March of Events"]

THE
WORLD'S WORK

SEPTEMBER, 1913

.UME XXVI NUMBER 5

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

N THE daily conversations in which we ask our neighbors how things are — the crops, the market, the cotton trade, as the case may be — we are apt to dwell upon only temporary and erial indications. The pessimist points ɔssible trouble in Mexico. The optimist ıes from the recent report of the New k State *Labor Bulletin* showing that once or twice in the last ten years has e been as little idleness in the ranks ɔrganized labor as there is this fall. he points to the record of the second ter year's net earnings of the Steel ɔoration. They were $41,000,000, an unt exceeded only three times in the ɔry of the company.

hese are interesting straws blown by breath of prosperity to point toward eerful winter. But underlying these ent signs there are great constructive ɛs for better business, better politics, er living, and higher ideals and aspira- ɜ than we have ever had before.

here is a nation-wide movement to nize rural life and make the country ɛtter place to live in.

here is a new spirit in our cities, not only ndustrial progress but for better city ɛrnment and better living conditions.

There is a new era in our railroads, for they are nearly all now dominated by men of broad understanding of the responsibilities that the railroads have to our prosperity.

It is a cleaner era in our politics than any that has preceded it.

We are beginning to have a conscience about the public health, about the treatment of women and children in industry.

Our treatment of the criminal, of the insane, of all unfortunates, is changing from an attitude of revenge and punishment to an attitude of wise helpfulness.

We are fast developing our school systems to fulfil their high task of training a democracy.

The great constructive forces of the country are at work, but they work so quietly that we often fail to notice them. And people who do not see these things are prone to have undue periods of enthusiasm and depression.

Because we have been busy scraping the barnacles off the ship of state, always a painful process for some of us, they are apt to feel that the vessel is in serious danger.

The truth is that there was never a better opportunity for constructive work and cheerfulness, and with the opportunity for these two things no one should complain.

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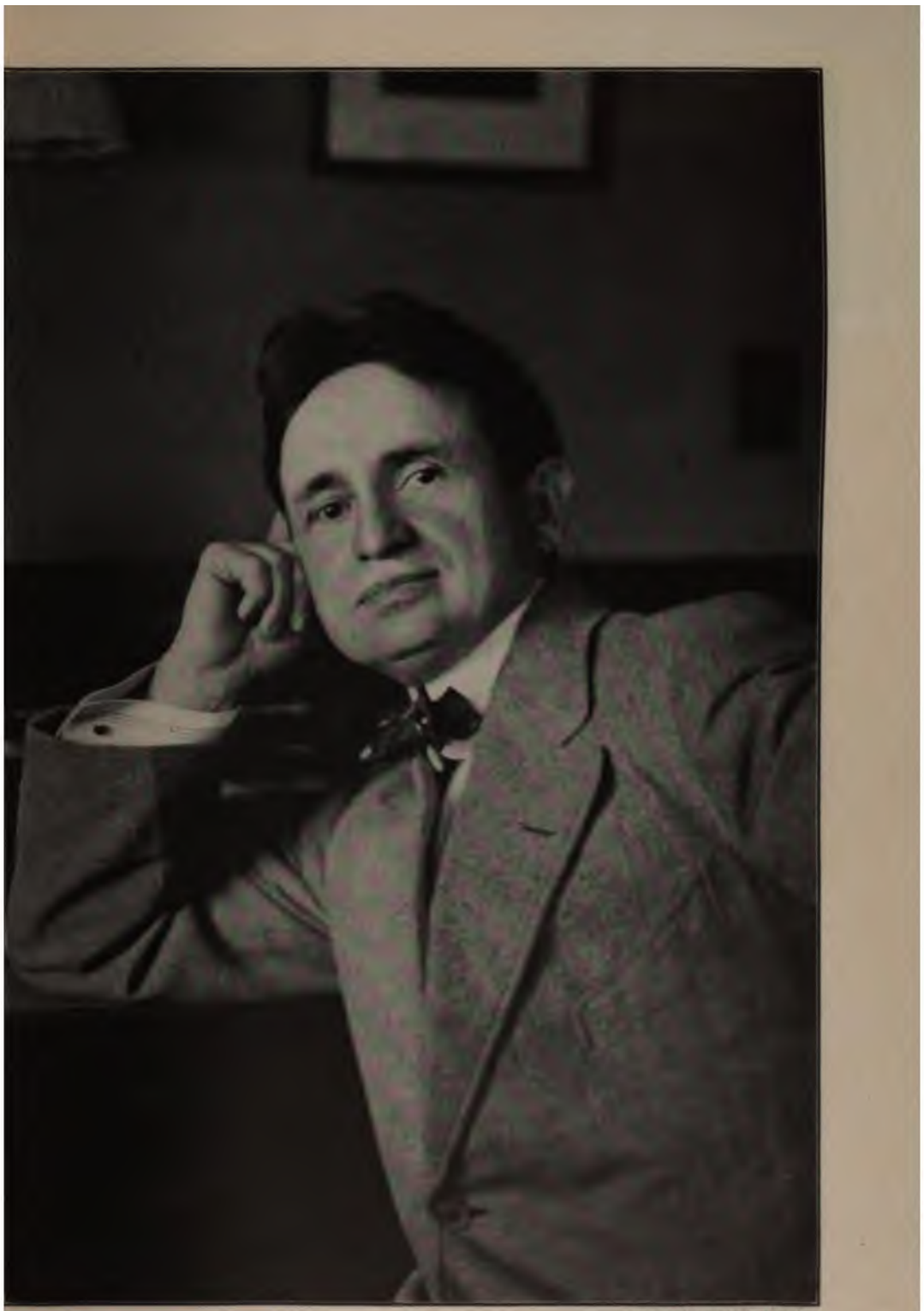
MR. JOHN PURROY MITCHEL

ONE OF THE YOUNGEST CANDIDATES WHO EVER RAN FOR THE OFFICE OF MAYOR OF NEW YORK CITY, WHO, AS HEAD OF THE FUSION TICKET, IS LEADING A GROUP OF PRACTICAL REFORMERS IN A CAMPAIGN TO REMOVE THE MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT FROM THE CONTROL OF TAMMANY

[See "The March of Events"]



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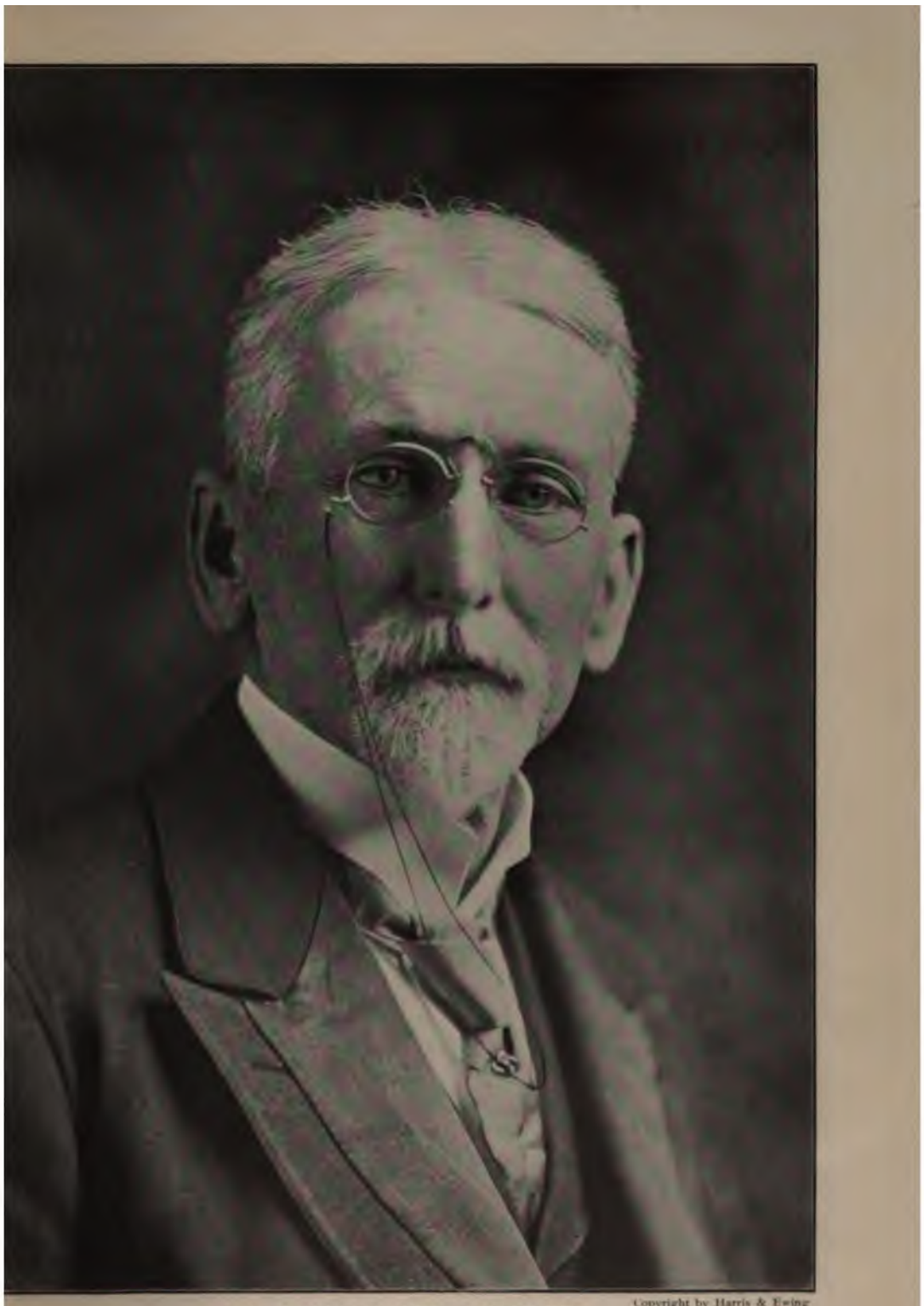
MR. WICKLIFFE ROSE

WHO RECENTLY SAILED FOR LONDON TO BEGIN THE ORGANIZATION OF THE WORLD-EMBRACING CAMPAIGN OF THE ROCKEFELLER COMMISSION FOR THE ERADICATION OF HOOKWORM DISEASE BY WHICH THE BLIGHT OF ANEMIA WILL ULTIMATELY BE REMOVED FROM THE PEOPLES THAT DWELL IN THE TROPICS



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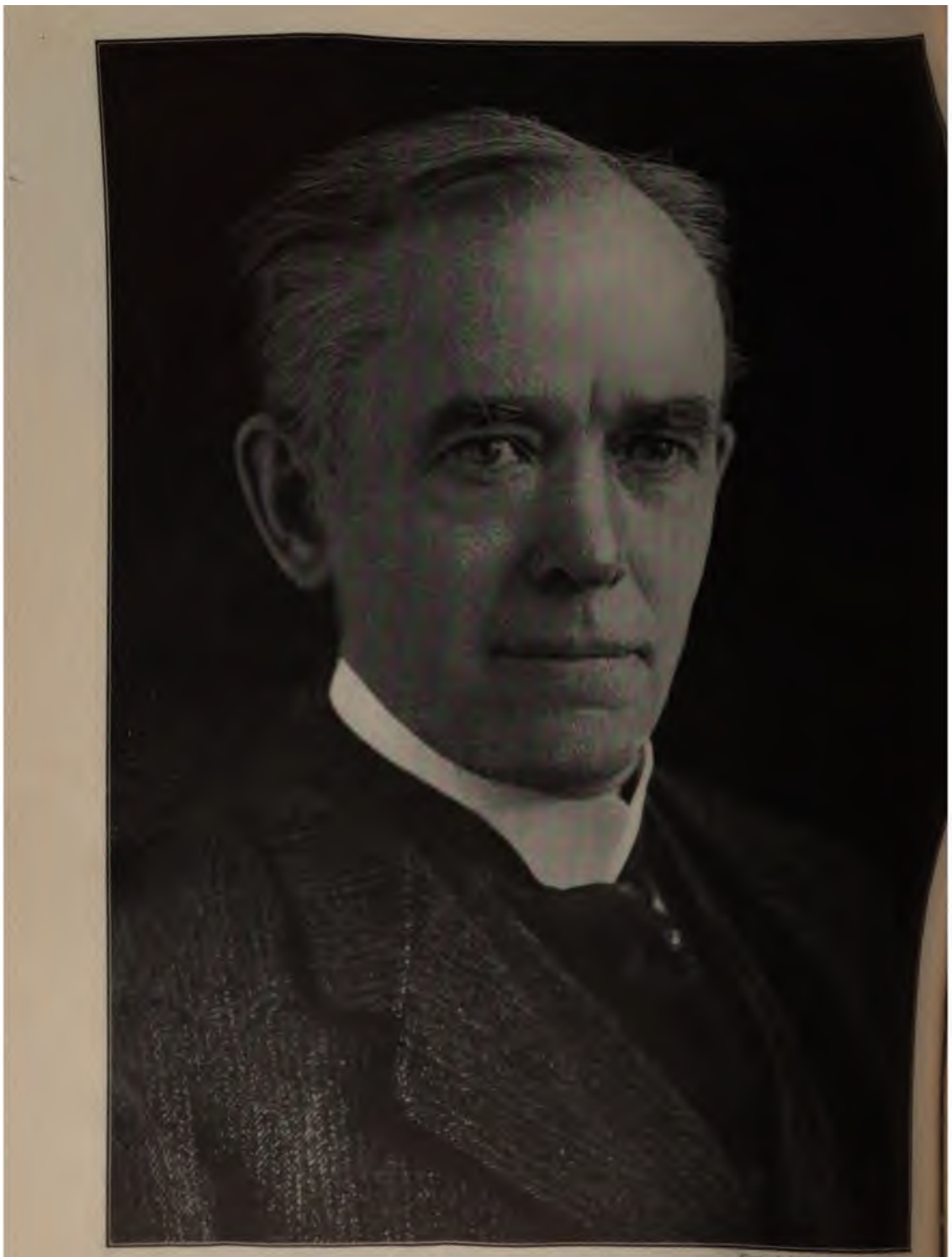
MR. WILLIAM LEA CHAMBERS

RECENTLY APPOINTED FEDERAL COMMISSIONER OF MEDIATION AND CONCILIATION UNDER THE AMENDED ERDMAN ACT, TO HELP SETTLE THE DISPUTE BETWEEN THE TRAINMEN AND CONDUCTORS OF THE EASTERN RAILROADS AND THEIR EMPLOYERS



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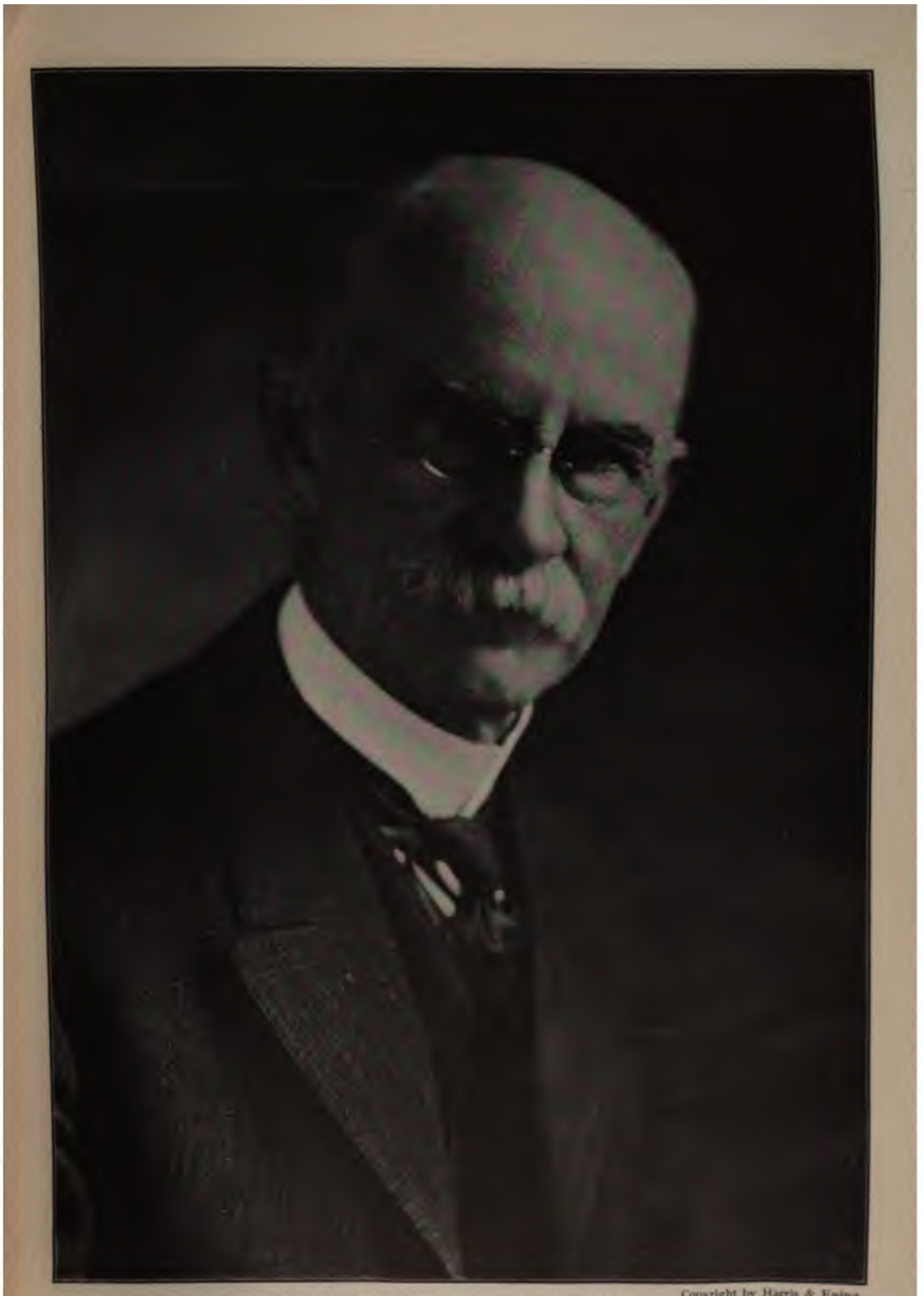
MR. CHARLES A. PROUTY

WHOSE REPORT AS A MEMBER OF THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION ON THE MANAGEMENT OF THE NEW YORK, NEW HAVEN & HARTFORD RAILROAD WAS FOLLOWED BY THE RETIREMENT OF MR. MELLEN AND THE SUBSEQUENT ELECTION OF MR. HOWARD ELLIOTT AS CHAIRMAN OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF THE SYSTEM [See "The March of Events"]



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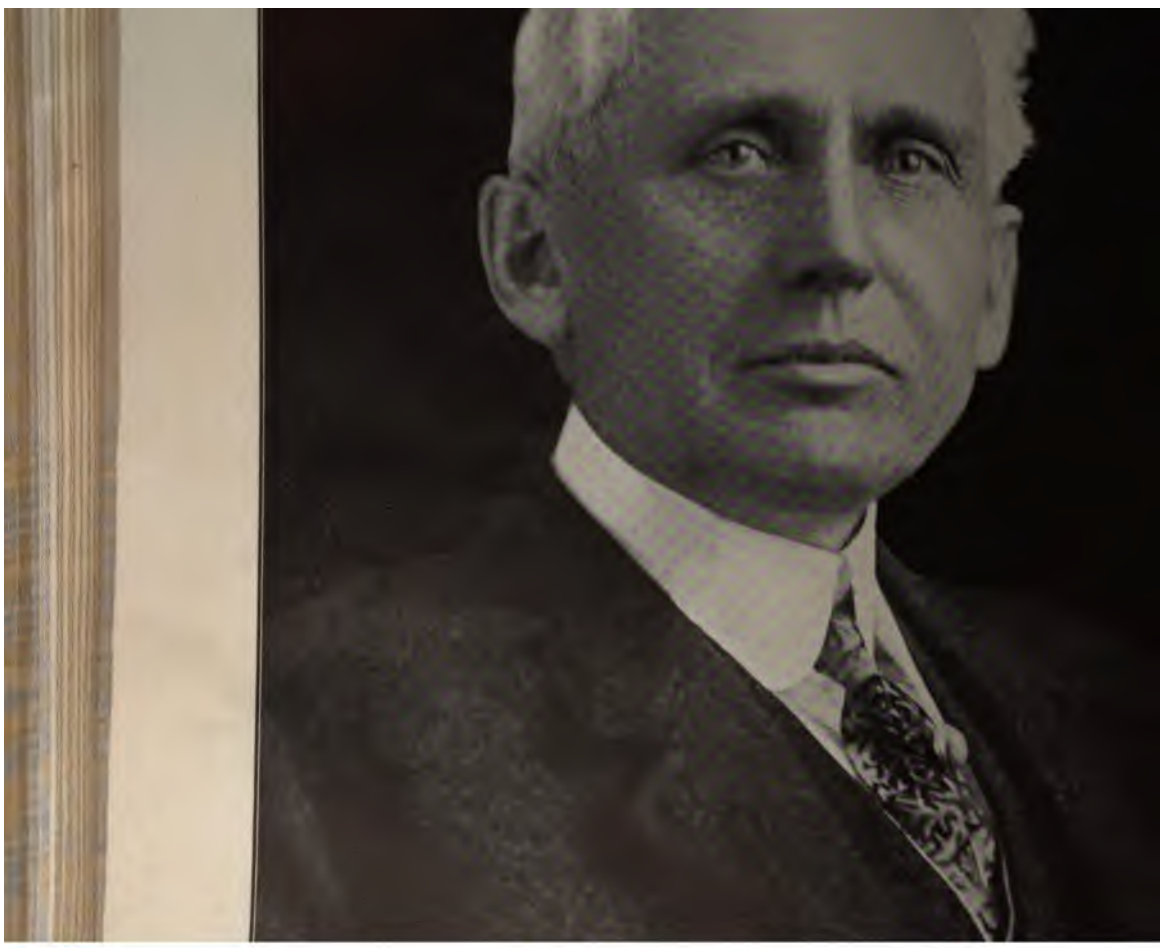
SENATOR CHARLES S. THOMAS

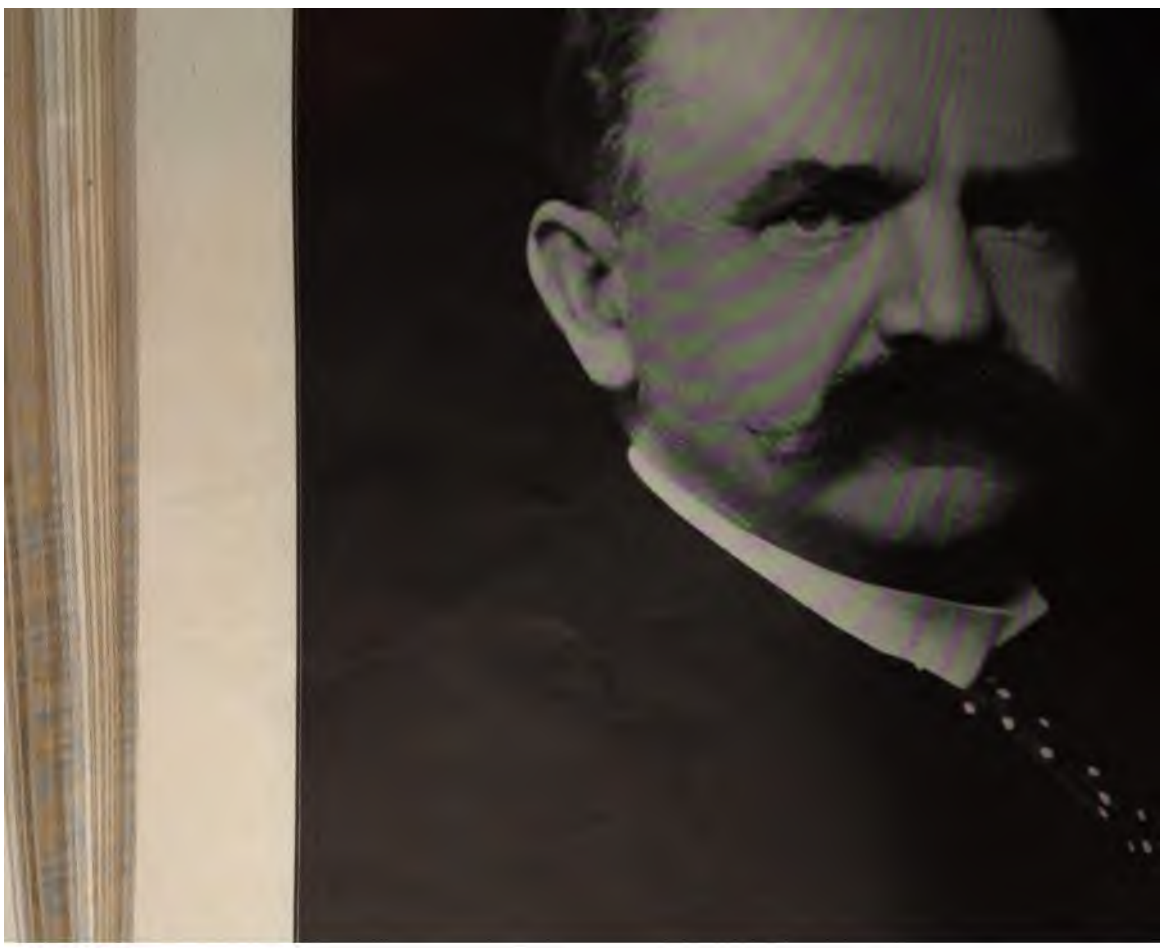
OF COLORADO, ONE OF THE PRINCIPAL OBJECTS OF ATTACK OF "THE MOST INSIDIOUS LOBBY WASHINGTON HAS EVER SEEN"

[See page 540]



VISCOUNT HALDANE

LORD HIGH CHANCELLOR OF GREAT BRITAIN, WHO HAS RECEIVED SPECIAL PERMISSION FROM HIS GOVERNMENT TO LEAVE THE REALM DURING HIS TERM OF OFFICE TO ATTEND THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION AT WHICH HE WILL BE THE GUEST OF HONOR



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AMERICAN COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

MARY EMMA WOOLLEY, OF MT. HOLYOKE COLLEGE, ONE OF THE THREE WOMEN
ESIDENTS OF THE MORE IMPORTANT WOMEN'S COLLEGES OF THE COUNTRY

MR. HENRY FORD

IS ONE OF THE FOREMOST LEADERS IN THE MOVEMENT BY WHICH THE VALUE EXPORTS OF AMERICAN-MADE AUTOMOBILES HAS BEEN LIFTED FROM 4 MILLION TO 28 MILLION DOLLARS IN SEVEN YEARS, AND BY WHICH AMERICAN CARS ARE ULARLY SOLD IN PRACTICALLY EVERY COUNTRY IN THE WORLD

(See page 597)

THE GROWTH OF AMERICAN CITIES

UPPER PICTURE: FOURTEENTH STREET IN OAKLAND, CAL., IN 1900. LOWER PICTURE: THE SAME VIEW IN 1912. THE POPULATION OF OAKLAND ROSE FROM 66,960 IN 1900 TO 150,174 IN 1910, AN INCREASE OF 124 PER CENT.

MEXICO

HE most serious part of the present Mexican situation is the future. The world looks upon us as the ntors of permanent peace in that cted country. To accomplish that : of the most delicate tasks of con- ive statesmanship that has ever faced ion. In the one hundred and three of their independence the Mexican : have never successfully practised :ratic government and they have ced but one successful dictator.

: present chaos of that country is rable in the eyes of the world. The d States, having put a prohibition interference from Europe, assumes sponsibility of seeing that law and take the place of tyranny, rebellion, brigandage. To recognize Huerta have put the stamp of our approval bloody revolution, and would not helped the ultimate solution of the m. The foundation of Huerta's e has not been its acceptance by the an people, nor his ability as dictator. e was prolonged by a foreign loan),000,000. But such loans are not to be repeated for such small secur- Huerta can give, especially without cognition of the United States.

intervene with armies is to admit the ssness of the situation and to commit ves to a project the end of which no an foresee. In the first place, we ot an army commensurate with the nd the loss of men and money which uld suffer in making our volunteer into an army would horrify any one as not studied our past military s. But the worst of intervention not be getting our armies into o. It would be getting them out

The end of the Spanish War found ldiers in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the pines. Twice since then we have in- ed in Cuba. We have colonial ad- rations in Porto Rico and in the pines, and in this last colony there are :,000 American soldiers. The situa- ı none of these islands is quite com- e to that in Mexico, and yet our :nces in them point unmistakably to the difficulty that we should have in withdrawing from Mexico. Hardly a greater misfortune could befall us than to be cursed with the administration of another unsatisfied country. And no overlordship that we could administer would satisfy a people who have had even the name of independence for a hundred years. Nor could anything we could do overcome the resentment and suspicion that our intervention in Mexico would arouse in Central and South America.

II

There is but one logical course of action for the United States in the present dilemma. That is mediation. If through the good offices of Ex-governor Lind, to whom the President has entrusted this delicate task, the present warring factions can be persuaded to retire in favor of an administration legally elected, with clean hands, and fair prospects of success, we shall have done the Mexican people and ourselves a great service.

If this fail after a fair trial or if some untoward incident like the blowing up of the *Maine* raises an insistent cry of war there is still the last recourse to armed intervention. But this would mean the loss of thousands of men and millions of money and probably a permanent Mexican problem.

The constructive task is to help the Mexican people to help themselves in peace — to gain their good-will, not their enmity.

Ex-governor Lind's task is a most delicate one, and its difficulties have been increased by the actions of the recently retired Ambassador in Mexico, and his ill-advised and inappropriate speech on his return to this country. The new emissary to Mexico, if he accomplish anything, must interfere in the domestic affairs of a foreign state. Of course, many Mexicans will resent this. But it is to be hoped that the more responsible of them, and the foreign bankers on whom Mexico largely depends, will realize that if Ex-governor Lind's mission is not successful in bringing about an honest and peaceful election as a basis for the establishment of law and order, the situation will be just one step nearer intervention.

ABOUT ENTANGLING ALLIANCES

THE Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs has refused to sanction Secretary Bryan's plan to have the United States definitely assume the same responsibility toward Nicaragua that we have now toward Cuba.

Undoubtedly the Secretary's plan meant an "entangling alliance" such as we have traditionally avoided. But the avoidance has been more in tradition than in fact, as our relations to Mexico show. If we did not have a *de facto* entangling alliance with Mexico we should not be any more responsible for conditions in that country than any other country. But the Monroe Doctrine's inevitable inference is that if the people of any American country fail to live up to their obligations to civilization, the responsibility next falls upon the United States. We have not taken this responsibility very actively, yet it might at any time be forced upon us.

Mr. Bryan's plan recognized the positive responsibilities imposed upon us as well as the negation imposed upon European countries. It was meant only as an honest attempt to aid Nicaragua. Our intervention in that country would have been no more imminent with the treaty than without it.

Latin American critics are, however, apt to suspect our motives. In the last fifteen years we have taken Porto Rico, the Philippines, the Canal strip. We have intervened in Cuba when we considered it necessary. We are operating the custom-houses (the chief source of income) in Santo Domingo. Our neighbors fear that we are easily forced into taking territory and extending our influence.

This is unfortunate at this time when the opening of the Panama Canal increases the possibilities of our more intimate intercourse and trade with South America.

An interesting plan has been made to allay this suspicion and at the same time somewhat to reduce the responsibilities that the Monroe Doctrine puts upon us. The plan is to invite one or two of the stronger South American countries to join with us in upholding this doctrine and all that it necessarily entails.

This or any foreign policy that i in an "entangling alliance" has, of many drawbacks, but as we may any time be entangled with the u stable of the neighbor republics t something to be said in favor alliance with the more stable stat

Perhaps there are no South A states that would share our Doctrine. There may be other against this particular plan, but o is certain: it behooves every A to think long and earnestly ab relations with South and Central A We are confronted "with a condi a theory." We are not in the sa tion from foreign affairs that accustomed to think ourselves. in need of a definite foreign poli will relieve us of suspicion and set limits to our responsibilities.

MR. McADOO'S HELPING H

THE Secretary of the Treasur up a great controversy method of trying to allevi of the money stringency that ye companies the moving of the cro offered to deposit between 25 and lion dollars in the banking centre grain and cotton states. The b those states generally accepted th for with a 25 to 50 million dollar in deposits, they can increase the between 100 and 200 millions. I so huge a task as moving the cr is a very real help.

The Secretary has devised but and arbitrary way of doing what currency measure ought to do r and effectively. But at least t porary expedient ought to ma year's crop-moving easier and teach us a little that will help operation of the new currency law. is nothing in the experiment to c the discussion that it has aroused. is no reason why an effort to im bad condition which everyone know once a year should be construed emergency measure which should m public feel that business was in a pr state. Neither is there any reason

Secretary's action as a precedent. The currency measure should end the for such actions.

It it is to be hoped that Mr. McAdoo's will be successful this year, for both producers and consumers are heavy s by a system under which cropping is retarded by the lack of capital.

FOR GOOD GOVERNMENT IN NEW YORK

THE nomination of Mr. John Purroy Mitchel, the collector of the port, as the fusion candidate for Mayor lew York has more than local signifie. There are two or three municipal ical machines that spread their coring influence to state and national ics. Tammany Hall is the most gerous of them.

gets no spoils from the present inistration at Washington. Unfortely an unfit Governor is not an tive opponent of the machine. Neverss, to take away its spoils in the city ld give promise of leaving Tammany n of much of its patronage and power. ne defeat of Tammany is the first . For this the fusion committee chose od candidate. As president of the rd of Aldermen, Mr. Mitchel forced e grafting Tammany borough presis out of office. He knows the rough tumble of New York City politics. is a capable and active fighter for sty and efficiency.

ter the defeat of Tammany comes the of administration of the city governt, a government that collects and ds more money and serves more le than most of the state governments he country. In doing this task, if ed, Mr. Mitchel will have the able of Mr. McAneny, now the president ne Borough of Manhattan.

r. McAneny's record as a construccity official made him a very strong idate for the Mayoralty nomination. s a fine spirit in him and in Mr. tman, the District Attorney, who similarly a candidate, that made them pt places on the ticket under Mr. hel. With the three men who have chiefly brought about the recent improvement in New York City government, all on one ticket, the fusion movement certainly should have a good chance to win at the polls.

There is no doubt that the election of this fusion ticket would give New York a city administration which in honesty and knowledge of the task surpasses any that New York has had for many years. It would be so well equipped with experience that it even holds out a fair prospect of taking the corruption out of the police force — the most difficult problem of any city administration.

NEW BLOOD FOR THE NEW HAVEN

MR. HOWARD ELLIOTT, the new chairman of the board of directors of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad, has a personality and a record which inspire confidence that he will be able to gain "good-will" for that system and bring it back to the place of eminence it enjoyed in the railroad world ten years ago. It is a hard task and a slow task. But it will be easier from the fact that his appointment produces a friendly attitude both from investors and from the public. Moreover, Mr. Elliott's new position, the chairman of the board of directors, is what it should be. It gives earnest of a change in that body — a change that was needed just as much as the change in the presidency of the road.

Mr. Mellen's retirement takes out of railroad management the last of the old-fashioned railroad barons. The Interstate Commerce Commission's report on the New Haven management, written by Mr. Prouty — the first report of this kind ever made by the Commission — did not censure the road's service. It said, on the contrary, that the passengers and shippers that used the New Haven's lines had little to complain of in the service. It stated specifically that, though the New Haven's operation was not so good as the Pennsylvania's, it was comparable to that of the Baltimore & Ohio.

Yet President Willard of the Baltimore & Ohio holds a high place in the public esti-

mation and Mr. Mellen — well, was not popular. Nor did most of Mr. Mellen's unpopularity come from the fact that under his administration the value of the stock declined from 225 to 100, or that he tried to monopolize the transportation agencies of New England. It is true, a stockholders' committee finally became active, and the Government has a suit against the railroad for an alleged violation of the Sherman Law. But the fundamental reason for the change in the New Haven's management was that Mr. Mellen had consistently shown himself entirely out of sympathy with the public that he served. He did not realize that a railroad president does serve the public as well as his board of directors. He stigmatized New Englanders who asked for better service as "agitators, demagogues, and politicians." Certain individuals who opposed the merger of the Boston & Maine with the New Haven he assailed as "blackmailers." He described the Interstate Commerce Commission as "a blunder!" The Hepburn Bill which gave it power he labelled "a most pernicious piece of legislation." Several years ago the Connecticut National Grange asked Mr. Mellen to address its meeting. He was tactless enough to make a speech so full of violence against those whom he termed "agitators and demagogues" that at its conclusion, the audience in a formal note repudiated the sentiments. He did not trust the public and the public did not trust him. There was little "good-will" — for the New Haven — under these conditions, and Mr. Mellen's good points as a railroad administrator are dimmed by his lack of the all-important friendly attitude toward the public. For his inability to deal with the public in an enlightened way Mr. Mellen is, of course, responsible.

On the other hand, for the policy of monopoly the directors of the New Haven are more accountable than Mr. Mellen. It is commonly said that he did not favor all the trolley purchases that were made. But whether he did or not he could not have carried on the orgy of buying without the sanction of the road's directors. If the road is burdened with a lot of poor-*paying trolley lines*, bought at inflated prices; if its stock has been watered by these purchases; if its power to maintain and improve its track and equipment has been impaired by these acquisitions; if its service to the public has been lessened, or its ability to earn for its stockholders, by the campaign of monopoly — if these things have been done, the responsibility for their doing lies with the directorate of the road. Mr. Mellen may be the scapegoat but his was the lesser responsibility.

It is a good augury, therefore, that there is a change, both in the presidency of the road and in the board of directors. Mr. Elliott's career shows that he understands what a modern railroad's duty is, and he has often shown a courage and independence in trying situations which indicate that he is not susceptible to influences that make for bad management.

FOR A SOLUTION OF THE WATER-POWER PROBLEM

IT TOOK more than twenty years of bitter struggle to establish the public's interest in railroad management and to make effective the public control of railroad rates and service. A little more than six years ago, when the conservation policy was announced, we first became aware of our water-power problem. There are hopeful indications that we are now in a fair way to settle its main difficulties.

Up to the time of President Roosevelt's veto of the James River Dam Act it had been the custom of the Government and of the states to give to development companies free and in perpetuity the right to develop water-power. Everyone recognized the great value of having the strength of the rivers turned into electric current, and to give away the privilege was the easiest way of accomplishing that end. The few companies that had the capital and foresight to develop the water-power of the country were getting franchises that would leave the public without redress if the companies should, in the future, charge exorbitant rates or give unbearable service.

The water-power companies naturally wished to keep on with the unlimited,

unrestricted franchises. The believers in conservation protested. In the last regular session of Congress there was an attack all along the conservationists' line of defence. The Raker Bill was introduced to establish a precedent under which water-power companies would be able to use lands in the National Forests contrary to the regulations of the Forest Service. This bill was killed in Congress.

Next came the Omnibus Dam Bill to grant sixteen water-power sites, without any provision for compensation to the Government or for rate regulation.

This second attempt failed. Then one of the sixteen projects — a site on the Coosa River in Alabama — was put into a separate bill. This went through Congress but was vetoed by President Taft.

In retaliation the believers in unrestricted franchises killed the Connecticut River Dam bill in the Senate, for its provisions for compensation and regulation were such that if it became a precedent the old days of free and easy franchises would be over.

As far as the record goes that is where the matter stood when the new Administration came into power.

During the last six months, however, the Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of Agriculture have agreed upon a policy that will cover the National Forests and all other public lands. They have leased three power sites under their plan. The leases are indefinite in time but revocable if the power companies fail to live up to their contract. For the first ten years there is no rental and after that the rental varies directly with the rates which the company charges the public so that there is an incentive to keep the rates down. The terms of these franchises are liberal enough to encourage capital to enter the water-power field and yet they protect the public and maintain the principle of government control.

To get power sites on navigable streams it is necessary to get an Act of Congress. In this field, too, it looks as if some equitable act might be passed which would do what the department leases do. The more enlightened water-power companies are beginning to accept the inevitable. One of the largest hydro-electric companies, for example, was willing to accept the Connecticut River Dam bill with its regulations and restrictions.

It has taken seven years for the water-power companies on one side and the believers in conservation on the other to come this near to agreement. If the controversy has delayed some development it has nevertheless been worth while, for it has saved many valuable sites from being incontinently grabbed and it has brought us to a point from which the whole hydro-electric business can go on upon a proper basis. If the power companies can learn from the history of the railroads they will aid in the passage of a fair amendment to the General Dam Act, and they will avoid deserving the public hostility that has at various times so handicapped the railroad business.

WHERE THERE ARE NO STATES' RIGHTS

THERE is a small but noisy party in the West with representatives in Congress which maintains that the National Government should divide the National Forests and the public domain and give to each state the land that lies within its borders. This scheme is backed in the main by men who believe in exploitation more than development and who believe that the opportunities for successful exploitation would be greater than they are now if the lands were under state control.

Their two most effective arguments are that the Forest Service regulations retard development and that the National administration of the forests and the public domain is an invasion of states' rights. They have never been able to prove their case against the Forest Service, but, if it were proven, of course the obvious thing to do would be to change the regulations or even the administration of the Forest.

With the states' rights doctrine these enemies of conservation hope to make more progress now that the Government is in the hands of the Democratic party.

In this hope, however, they forget that the states' rights doctrine has never

applied to the public lands. In accordance with a recommendation of the Continental Congress before our present form of Government was established the different states ceded to the central Government their unappropriated lands. With the exception of this land, the territory of the original colonies, and the state of Texas, which was an independent Government, all the territory of the United States was bought and paid for by the National Government. And since the very beginning not a single state has been given the control of the public domain within its borders upon admission to the Union or afterward, except Tennessee. In this case there was so little public land within the state borders that it was not worth while for the National Government to continue to administer it. The Federal Government has donated some land to almost every state but it has always kept the main part of the unappropriated lands (in the language of the resolve of October 10, 1780) to "be disposed of for the common benefit of the United States." Moreover, the enabling act and the constitutions under which the states were admitted expressly stated the right of the Federal Government to control the public domain.

The several states have never had any rights to the public lands and the effort to use the ancient and honorable doctrine of states' rights to bolster up attempts to exploit the public domain is no more tenable than it is meritorious.

The country has made up its mind about conservation — the right utilization of our resources. It believes in it. It is anxious to put its beliefs fully into practice. There will be little toleration for those who delay this great task in order to benefit their private schemes of exploitation.

AN UNDERCURRENT OF COÖPERATION

EVERY once in a while a country wakes up to find itself revolutionized in some particular. In England, for example, the little retail coöperative stores had rooted themselves permanently in the habits of the poorer people before they even had a legal status. Now they serve a fifth of the population of Great Britain as members.

The coöperative idea is now taking root in this country faster than is usually realized. Most people have known that coöperation had gained a foothold in Minnesota and Wisconsin. They had heard of coöperative and semi-coöperative creameries, stores, cheese factories, and grain elevators. There is even a coöperative bank and a coöperative laundry. The eminently successful organizations of the California orange growers and the apple men of the Northwest are known all over the country, but people often forget that they are essentially coöperative agencies. There are many small retail stores run on the coöperative plan in New England. New York State recently amended its business corporation law to provide for the organization of coöperating enterprises. The law limits the stock which any one member may hold to $5,000, and it also limits every stockholder to one vote, whether he holds $5,000 worth of stock or only $5 worth. There are at least two strong coöperative marketing associations in the South, and only recently the workers in a South Carolina cotton mill subscribed $10,000 and took over the company store.

Coöperation, when successful, saves money. This saving is the basis of the propaganda on which coöperation is spread. But it has other advantages as important if not as obvious. It teaches people to progress together, it promotes wholesome social intercourse, and it tends to keep in the hands of the many some of the agencies of distribution.

AN EXPERIMENT IN DEMOCRACY

ONE of the most interesting, and also one of the most important, experiments in democracy that is going on in the United States is in the cotton mill towns of the South.

The average cotton mill owner, when he builds his mill, builds also the houses for his help, the schoolhouse, the church, and the store. All this is an expense that many of them would avoid if it were possible, but usually it is not. They

good machinery in their mills — and look for labor. They get people the surrounding country, from other , from the mountains. They begin rain the force in habits of industry. ome of the mills there are bad con- ns and child labor, etc. But let us the best of them, mills which are run esident owners who know their help have a keen interest in its welfare. y of these owners have more zeal discretion in their welfare work. often provide facilities for better g that their employees are not ad- ed enough to use and appreciate. in spite of all difficulties there are y model villages, in which the laborers and work under good conditions. even in most of these model villages nill hands lack the responsibilities of ocracy. They live under a benevo- despotism. They get their wage from nill company, pay back part of it to company for rent, and most of the passes through the hands of the com- store keeper. They send their ren to a company school, and they iselves attend a church built and often orted by the company.

me of the mill owners believe in a volent despotism. Others practise inking that their workers are living democracy. Only a few see that to a real race of manufacturers the ing people will have to be led out of lespotism to a condition in which they think and act for themselves. There not be a real democracy among the ers in the mills until they are rid of the pany school, the company store, the pany houses—no matter how benevo- y these agencies are conducted. The le upon whom the future of Southern stry depends should begin to stand their own feet and practise de- acy. It is time that they began to their own homes, to send their chil- (as a right and not as a favor) to the c schools, perhaps to belong to a erative store.

ere are a few mills which are helping employees to take up the responsi- es that every American should as- , and the success or failure of these efforts is of tremendous importance, not only to the South, but to the rest of the nation as well.

TAXICABS AND CHRISTIANITY IN PEKING

SOMETHING of the change that has come over China, going to the foundations of national thought and racial custom, may be seen in this paragraph from a letter written by Mr. Sherwood Eddy, a Christian missionary who last spring made an evangelistic tour of the country with the cordial co-operation of the Republican Government, even addressing the 1,600 cadets of the Military Academy, the West Point of China, who were drawn up at attention at ten o'clock at night in the bitter cold especially to hear him.

> It was a novel experience in ancient Peking, where Sir Robert Hart remembers seeing men drowned in the deep pools of mud and water in the main streets, to speed from college to college in a taxi, though we had to turn out for an occasional camel train or a slow moving country cart. The battered walls of Peking reminded us of the siege in Boxer days, a short decade ago, but recently the Young Men's Christian Association held a prayer meeting of its Bible Class leaders on the high altar in the Temple of Heaven itself, where the Emperors of China offered their yearly sacrifice.

The especial pertinence of this quotation may be gathered from its significance when read in connection with Mr. Cleveland's article on "American Automobiles Abroad," elsewhere in this magazine. Americans who stay at home have little conception of the widespread influence of our country upon a swiftly changing world.

THE PANAMA EXPOSITION

ENGLAND and Germany have notified the United States that they will not participate in the Panama Exposition at San Francisco. If this decision is final, it makes little difference whether the refusal is because of the difficulties of getting a good exhibit to San Francisco, or because British trade interests are disturbed at our treatment

[illegible] conveniently for the great mass of American fair-goers, and exhibitors. [illegible] show that same aggressive spirit in getting ready an exposition so interesting that, in spite of the long distances, the people of the great interior and the people of the East will have to attend. And this is more than a problem for San Francisco. The Panama Exposition is an opportunity for the United States to increase its acquaintance with its neighbors, the Latin American Republics, and the peoples across the Pacific. As such the Fair is a national, not a San Francisco, project.

NEW EXPRESS RATES

THE Interstate Commerce Commission has ordered a drastic change in the express business to take effect on October 15th. It imposes upon the companies a new system of making rates. It orders a considerable reduction in all interstate rates. It requires all the companies to adopt uniform classi- [illegible]

[illegible] public.

The new rates for packages of one pound or more are about the same as the rates now [illegible] for short distances and lower for long distances. On packages of fifty pounds or less practically all rates have been reduced. On light packages going more than [illegible] miles and less than 3,000 [illegible] are even lower than the newly announced parcel post charges.

Between the parcel post and the express companies under the direction of the Interstate Commerce Commission we shall have service far cheaper and better than we ever hoped for five years ago. And the best of it is that the Post Office Department seems disposed to continue its improvements and even the express companies are reported to have some enlightened plans for cheap and efficient transportation of food stuffs from the country to the city.

THE TARIFF REDUCING WOOLEN PRICES

WHILE the tariff bill was still under discussion the American Woolen Company announced its prices for the spring of 1914. They showed an average decrease of from 10 to 12½ per cent. from the prices of 1913. This is one of the first visible effects of the reform of our tariff laws. The actual reductions were from 5 to 21 cents a yard. Other American manufacturers have made similar reductions. More striking, however, was the trade programme of the American agents of mills in Bradford, England. They made public two different sets of prices, one for importations under the Payne Act, and the other under the new Underwood-Simmons tariff. The second schedule of prices was from 40 to 50 cents a yard cheaper than the first.

Such announcements, however, are likely to raise false hopes of very much cheaper clothing. The day that these reduced

s were announced a manufacturing ier in New York explained that the :tion which they provided in the cost e cloth going into an average suit of es would be about 40 cents, and he d that the increase in the cost of would more than offset that.

other words, people who expected reductions in the price of clothes to v the reduction in the tariff will be pointed. The reason is obvious. The of raw material is only one of many ; which affect the final price of the ied garment. A 20 per cent. reduc- in the price of the raw material would rally dwindle to a 5 or 6 per cent. :tion on the finished product.

t despite the fact that we shall ibly not be able to buy woolen suits $10 cheaper than formerly, we have ason to be disappointed in the tariff. : increasing cost of labor, as the manu- ring clothier says, takes up the sav- n the raw material, we are still just much better off, for under the old tions the extra wages would have been l, and we should have been paying for our clothes. Moreover, these he first reductions, announced while ew tariff was still under discussion in Senate. With the rates in effect ;n competition is likely to cause er reductions. Perhaps even foreign- clothes might be imported, if there in a great discrepancy between prices ind abroad. In other words, the new set all the forces toward cheaper ing at work without handicap. For ese forces to get into full operation take a little time, but their operation tain. And what is true of the prices oolen goods is true of most of the things which we buy directly and :ctly. In the aggregate it will mean it deal in easier living for the average ican family.

neans much more than their accounts iecessarily show, for the family ac- s do not show what is bought in- :ly. To take a simple example: price of steel rails has been $28 a ton iany years. In other countries the has varied but the average has been $28. The railroads of the United States consume nearly 2½ million tons of rails a year. A change of even a dollar in the price means a difference of about 2½ million dollars. Ultimately, the American people pay for those rails — and in the long run saving means a lessened cost of living. There are thousands of things which the public buys indirectly this way, and the reduction in the tariff affects the public as much through these things as it does in any other way. Throughout the whole fabric of our life the reduced tariff works toward more normal conditions and fairer prices.

A PROGRESSIVE POSTMASTER-GENERAL

ON AUGUST 15th Postmaster-General Burleson's new orders to increase the scope of the parcel post went into effect.

Under their provisions parcels will hereafter be delivered locally, by city or rural carrier, for 5 cents for a pound package. For every additional two pounds in weight up to the 20 pound limit, a cent is added to the rate. On this basis, for example, an eleven-pound package could be sent to any local address for 10 cents. Under the old rates it would have cost 15 cents.

The territory covered by local delivery to which these rates apply is the first zone. Approximately all territory within 150 miles of a post office (excluding the local delivery territory) makes up the second zone. In this, the rates are five cents for the first pound and one cent for every additional pound. This is also a substantial reduction from the original rates. At the same time the weight limit is increased from eleven to twenty pounds.

This reduction in rate and increase in the limit of weight follows the three changes put into effect in July: one to reduce the insurance charge on packages sent by parcel post from ten cents to five cents for parcels valued at $25 or less; another providing for the shipment of parcels C.O.D.; and the third rescinding the order that parcel post stamps should be used exclusively in that branch of the postal service.

All these changes widen the usefulness and increase the convenience of the parcel post, and the Postmaster-General says that other improvements are to follow, such, for example, as the use of precancelled stamps. Under such administration the new head of the service hopes not only to please the public but to increase the business enough to make the post office pay.

Admittedly, these new rulings are of a somewhat experimental character, and until they have been thoroughly tried it will not be possible to tell how successful they are. But one thing is certain: they are moves in the right direction, and they show a refreshing flexibility and business-like attitude on the part of the post office.

Incidentally, also, they point very strongly a moral about legislation. The original act which Congress passed creating the parcel post gave the Postmaster-General wide powers and responsibilities. He was given permission, with the consent of the Interstate Commerce Commission, to make changes in the classification, the weight limit, the rates, or the zones specified in the bill. In other words, the act allowed him latitude enough to be efficient. The granting of such powers to administrative officers is as rare as it is wise. In this particular case the changes which the Postmaster-General has made in six months, if made by Congressional amendments, probably would have taken two or three years. That Congress was wise enough to give him the opportunity to make these changes is as much to its credit as the making of the changes is to the credit of the Postmaster General himself.

THE WASTE OF IGNORANCE

IN SPITE of our highly organized industrial system we still are guilty of the most wasteful and foolish practices. For example, all during this last summer the farmers of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana have been selling their cattle to other parts of the country to fatten. Southern cattle have gone from a country of long grazing seasons and vast areas of cheap land, an ideal cattle coun-

', to Texas, Kansas, even to Montana, states which have no better natural advantages than those from which they came.

The Western ranchmen pay for the cows, the cost and losses of shipping West, fatten them, and still make a profit. That profit and much more would go to the Southern farmer if he kept his cattle at home. But he is a cotton farmer—a one-crop man. He does not know much about the cattle business, and his ignorance costs him dearly. It also costs the public, for carrying the cattle all over the country is an economic waste.

If the Southern pastures were freed of the cattle tick and the Southern farmer of his indifference to the cattle business, the United States would gain a great cattle country that would much more than offset the breaking up of the Western ranges. The solution of our beef problems can be made much nearer home than Argentine. And at the same time the prosperity of the agricultural South can be greatly enhanced, for it is almost axiomatic that farm profits and cattle are to be found together.

KENTUCKY'S "MOONLIGHT" SCHOOLS

ONE of the most touching stories of educational advance that could well be imagined comes to light in a recent government publication—those publications that are usually so dull and so sterile of human interest. Bulletin No. 530 of the United States Bureau of Education is entitled "Illiteracy in the United States" and, in much smaller type, "An Experiment for its Elimination." The statistics under the larger title are important; but the story of the experiment is interesting. Here is the essence of it:

To wait for a generation of illiterate men, women, and children to die is a slow and painful process. That there is a shorter way to the reduction and elimination of illiteracy has been proven by some European states, and sporadic efforts in this country indicate that there is a better way here, to wit: To teach these grown-ups, in schools organized especially for them, to read and write, and possibly something more.

One of the most notable recent attempts to

that begun in September, 1911, by Wilson Stewart, superintendent of Rowan County, Ky., and her associ-

studied carefully the conditions of y, Mrs. Stewart decided to open ols for adults on moonlight nights lic schoolhouses of the county. She er plan to the teachers and called ers. All the teachers of the county . On Labor Day, September 4, e teachers visited the homes of the oughout the county, explained the announced that moonlight schools opened the next evening. It was hat the response would be slow, but 1,200 men and women from 18 to ld were enrolled the first evening. e trooping over the hills and out of s, some to add to the meagre edu- eived in the inadequate schools of lhood, some to receive their first reading and writing. Among these only illiterate farmers and their ives, sons, and daughters, but also nerchants or "storekeepers," illit- isters, and illiterate lumbermen. ent with age, came that they might ead letters from absent sons and and that they might learn for me to write to them.

one third of the population of the s enrolled. Says Mrs. Stewart:

had all the excuses and all the hich any people might offer — high eless streams, rugged roads, weariness ay's hard toil, the shame of beginning in life, and all the others; but they eking excuses — they were sincerely stly seeking knowledge. Their in- ir zeal, and their enthusiasm were to witness. It was truly an in- ht to see these aged pupils bending esks which their children and grand- ld occupied during the day. Their learning and their pride in their nts exceeded any joy that I have sed."

mber, 1912, a "moonlight school" nstitute was held in Morehead, Ky.; perintendent and teachers who had the first moonlight schools instructed wished to do work of this kind in l adjoining counties, and in the fall e movement spread to eight or ten ties, while the enrollment of adults County reached nearly 1,600.

cess of the men and women proves ot so difficult for illiterate grown-ups to learn to read and write as is generally supposed. They learn in a very short time, if given the opportunity. Reading, writing, and arithmetic are simple subjects when mature minds are concentrated upon them. A child of ordinary mind can be taught to read and write in three or four weeks; and the adult can do at least as well. One man, aged 30, after four lessons in the evening school, wrote the county superintendent a legible letter. Another man, aged 50, wrote a legible letter after seven nights' attendance. A woman, aged 70, wrote a legible letter after eight nights of study. These cases are, of course, exceptional; but experience has shown that a few weeks' attendance at the night schools has been sufficient to enable the adult pupils to pass over the dark line of illiteracy and to get into the class of literates. Several succeeded in securing a Bible, which had been offered as a prize by the superintendent to those who would learn to write a letter during the first two weeks of the moonlight school term.

In some of the districts the enrollment of adults exceeded the enrollment of children. One teacher, 18 years old, had only four adult pupils in her class, but one of these was a preacher who learned to read his Bible and a newspaper after a few weeks of earnest study. After four lessons he signed his name to a paper for the first time; and after seven lessons, to quote the words of the county superintendent, "he wrote an enthusiastic letter, with a period at the close of each sentence as large as a bird's eye."

In another night school, of 65 enrolled, 23 were illiterates, and there were 3 preachers in the class. Several octogenarians were enrolled in these schools; one a woman, 85, another a man, 87. Some of the men and women entered the schoolroom for the first time in their lives when they enrolled as night pupils.

One of the significant facts brought out in this experiment is that adults of limited education have taken advantage of the opportunity to return to school and to increase their knowledge. Of the 1,600 adult pupils attending night school during the second term, 300 were unable to read and write at all, 300 were from those who had learned in September, 1911, and 1,000 were men and women of meagre education.

The change in the attitude of the community toward the school, where the night school has been undertaken, is in itself significant. A school trustee thus describes the change in his community:

"I have lived in this district for 55 years and I never saw any such interest as we have

here now. The school used to just drag along, and nobody seemed interested. We never had a gathering at the school, and nobody thought of visiting the school. We had not had night school but three weeks until we got together right. We papered the house, put in new windows, purchased a new stovepipe, made new steps, and bought the winter's fuel.

"Now we have a live Sunday school, a singing school, prayer meeting once each week, and preaching twice a month. People of all denominations in the district meet and worship together in perfect unity and harmony, aged people come regularly, and even people from the adjoining county are beginning to come."

What could be more heartening than this record of unselfish achievement — for the teachers' work is all voluntary and without pay? It is an inspiring evidence of the latent good will and of the powers for betterment that lie hidden in the deep springs of democracy.

THE ART OF BUYING BONDS CHEAPLY

A DOCTOR practising in a relatively small town in Ohio had thrust upon him, a few months ago, a responsibility that for a long time vied with the emergency calls of his patients in causing him sleepless nights.

It had fallen to his lot, unexpectedly, to take charge of the estate of a deceased friend. Under the terms of the will, the doctor was left practically free to follow his own method in investing funds, amounting to several thousand dollars, the only source of the widow's current income.

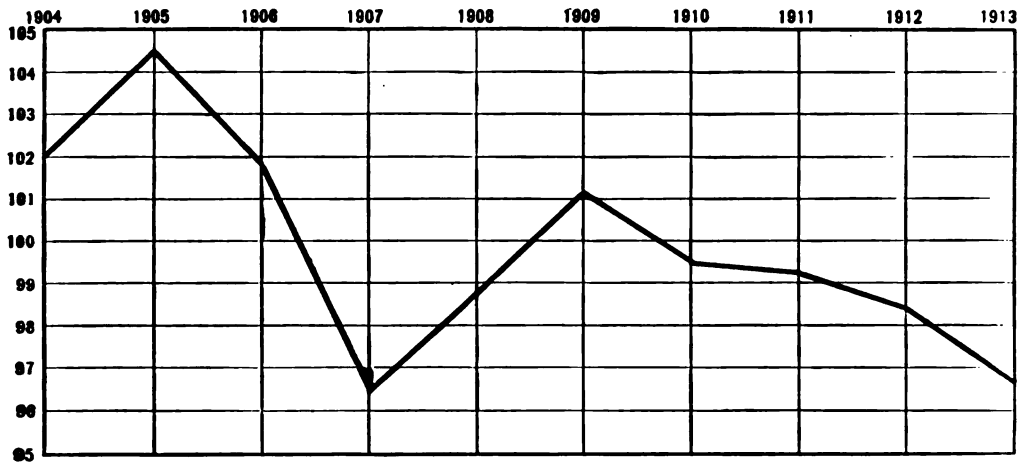
He had had some previous experience with stocks and bonds, but it had been experience of a kind that went no farther than to convince him that there was rather more truth than fiction in the cynical old saying about the average member of his profession being one of the most gullible persons in the world when it comes to the buying of investment securities. It was fortunate, however, that he had learned, even at considerable cost and inconvenience, that investing money is, above all, not a thing to be undertaken at haphazard, and with an eye only to large returns. For otherwise the doctor might, with the very best of intentions, have allowed himself so much freedom of judgment in the solution of his new problem as to endanger the welfare of the lady whose interests were at stake.

He had firmly fixed in his mind at the outset one simple rule that applies invariably *in cases* like this one, namely: that there is nothing which can compensate for safety. But if the interest return, or income yield, in this particular case was a secondary consideration, it was nevertheless a highly important one; and the doctor's appreciation of that phase of the problem restrained him from following the other more or less natural impulse, which would have carried him blindly to the opposite extreme, and resulted in getting the widow's money invested in securities possessing unnecessary virtues and, on that account, of wholly inadequate yield. He realized that to follow the latter course would amount to a shirking of responsibility no less than to risk unnecessarily the loss of part or all of the principal for the sake of inordinate returns. So the question that gave him the most concern at first was one which always has worried prudent investors, large and small, and doubtless always will: How to determine the maximum rate of income consistent with sound security — how to discover just where true investment ends and speculation begins.

In the hope that he might be able to find his own way out of this dilemma, the doctor began a systematic study of investment principles. He became very much absorbed in it, and when the WORLD'S WORK first heard about his case he had got far enough along to have reached the conclusion that no hard and fast rule about the relationship between safety of the principal and income could be laid down.

Under the guidance of a local banker he had made a first rate beginning in the discharge of his important trust. A part of the money had been used to buy a couple of local mortgages at 6 per cent. Neither of these mortgages represented much more than half the value of the property pledged as security, and both were given by people with whom the doctor was fairly intimately acquainted, and for whose worth and credit the banker was able to vouch unhesitatingly. Another part had been put into municipal bonds, a type of security which a good many country bankers will recommend to investing customers to the exclusion of nearly everything but mortgages. On a better time than when prosperity talk was being heard on all sides. He had rightly concluded there was a whole lot of logic in that; and when he wrote to this magazine for advice, there was no end of just such evidence of the time being "out of joint."

Another fundamental which this investor had come across in his studies was that at a time when the great corporations are compelled to bid high for money their bonds are invariably low in price. And in this connection he admitted having been impressed with the significance of the high rates chronicled in the financial columns of his daily paper as having been paid lately for new short-term money



THE DECLINE IN THE PRICE OF INVESTMENT BONDS

SHOWING THE CHANGES THAT HAVE TAKEN PLACE SINCE 1903 IN THE YEARLY AVERAGE OF HIGH AND LOW QUOTATIONS FOR EIGHT TYPICAL BONDS OF INVESTMENT QUALITY

these two divisions of the widow's money an average yield of a little more than 5 per cent. was obtained.

He desired to use still another part of the money to add to the list a few railroad bonds of the best quality. But here a new perplexity had arisen. Such securities were objects of trade to a greater extent than mortgages, or even municipal bonds, and, therefore, it became important to know when was the favorable time to buy. Was there any rule for determining this?

Somewhere the doctor had read that the time of "uncertainty," when financial wiseacres were scratching their heads over the currency, or the crops, or the tariff, or strikes, or Government investigations, was by corporations of the best credit standing, like the Northern Pacific Railroad, and even by states like New York and Tennessee. But he wanted to know what assurance there was that in all these respects the times would not get worse before they got better — that, if he bought bonds now, he would not a little bit later on be regretfully contemplating still lower prices.

It is on account of this evidence of hesitancy on the doctor's part that the story of his experiences has a special timeliness, for it stamps him as typical of perhaps the majority of the folk who have written to this magazine during the last few months for guidance in investing money. The constantly recurring ques-

tion has been when to expect the limit of the downward movement of the prices of standard investment bonds. The fact is, it is not given, even to the great masters of investment experience, such as the savings banks and insurance companies, to decide with mathematical certainty.

It is a false notion for any investor, and particularly the "average" individual investor, to expect that, save by good luck, he can obtain unadulterated the cream of investment opportunity. Blind persistence in that notion will be found, in nine cases out of ten, to result in the investor's getting little better than skimmed milk. And it is at just such times as the present, when prices are marked down all along the line, that it is always well to point out this delusion, and suggest that, after all, it doesn't make so much difference to the real investor what may happen in the market place during the next six weeks, six months, or even the next year.

The essential fact is that there are now on all sides a great many discrepancies between market prices and intrinsic values. These discrepancies are found among all types of high grade securities, but nowhere are they more apparent than in the large group of railroad bonds comprising the issues that have long been known as the "standards" of American investments. A select list made up of Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé general mortgage 4's, Baltimore & Ohio gold 4's, Chicago, Burlington & Quincy (Denver division) 4's, Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul general mortgage 4's, Louisville & Nashville unified 4's, Northern Pacific prior lien 4's, Norfolk & Western consolidated 4's, and Union Pacific first and land grant 4's, practically all bonds of the quality prescribed for public and private trustee investment in New York state, shows, by way of illustration, an extreme fluctuation in yearly average prices of approximately eighty dollars during the last decade. Taking the current prices of individual issues in such a list, they are found to have declined to within a short distance of the levels reached during the panic of six years ago. And it is considered significant by the students of the cycles of price movements that the latest downward swing has been in progress uninterruptedly since 1909, or for a longer period than any similar movement in modern financial history.

The investor who is inclined to hesitate at times like the present will do well to remember that what usually happens after a period of depression is that the best bonds are among the first to reflect in their market prices the turn of the tide of investment.

LITTLE STORIES OF ELASTIC CURRENCY

BY

JAMES R. MERRIAM

DOUBTLESS you have heard the story of the hospital superintendent and his emergency beds."

The speaker was Mr. James B. Forgan, president of the First National Bank of Chicago, addressing a convention of the American Bankers' Association at New Orleans two years ago, when currency *reform* was being widely debated, just as *it is to-day.* The story is recalled now because it illustrates very aptly one of the vital defects of our present banking system, which the bill submitted recently to Congress by the Senate and House Committees on Banking and Currency aims to remedy.

The particular superintendent of Mr. Forgan's story was required by law to reserve a certain number of rooms in his hospital for emergency use. One day a building under construction in the next

t collapsed, maiming a number of the
men. The people of the neighbor-
hurriedly carried the poor fellows to
ospital. The superintendent received
so long as he had ordinary beds to
hem in, but kept the emergency rooms
d. He then told the people he could
ake care of any more patients, and on
reminded by a nurse that the emer-
y rooms were not in use, he said,
y, we cannot use those. The law
res us to keep them always ready for
mergency."

is is a season of the year when the
l of Mr. Forgan's story is likely to
rought home forcibly to farmers,
hants, manufacturers, and business
of all classes when they think of
anking system as it was constructed
f century ago to meet exigencies long
passed away.

der that system it has been not only
ble but a common occurrence for a
with good security and a solvent
ess to be crippled in his operations
se he could not get his bank to
him in the ordinary commercial way.

e principal function of a commercial
with which the average person is
familiar is that of receiving the de-
of money, not so much for safekeeping
facilitate changes in its ownership
ut actually moving the money it-
But the layman often overlooks the
rtant fact that by far the largest part
bank's deposits originate in quite a
ent way.

ven a certain amount of deposits in the
of actual money, the banker finds
although he engages to repay this
y on demand, not all the depositors
want their funds at the same time.
rience has taught him that he can
his obligation for repayment if he
in his vaults only a certain propor-
of the money entrusted to his care.
efore, he lends out the balance, just
e lends his own capital, and it is
gh this operation that a substantial
of his profit is derived. It is this
ng operation, also called "discount-
that causes bank deposits to swell to
enormous totals. This is the way
ich it works:

Brown is a builder engaged in business in a growing Kansas town. He has important contracts on hand, and finds himself running short of materials. To supply his needs will take $50,000, and it so happens that he can get the most satisfactory terms from a certain firm with which he has never done business before, and which is, therefore, reluctant to extend him credit until the instalments on his contracts fall due in sufficient amounts to enable him to pay for the materials. He finds, moreover, that to settle for the materials at once would so reduce his working capital that he would soon be unable to meet the requirements of the weekly payroll of his workmen. He goes to Jones, who is president of the bank in which he keeps his account, and knows there is no question about his solvency. It is arranged that the bank shall lend Brown the $50,000 on the security of his promise to pay over the amount two months hence with interest at, say, 6 per cent.

Now Brown's note is taken over by the bank as one of its assets, and the bank's books are made to show that the sum, for which the note calls, stands to Brown's credit as if he had actually deposited the money. He now goes ahead with his purchase of materials, and still has an adequate balance at the bank, a part of which he may take out in actual money, leaving a substantial part, however, to draw checks against as he may need money from time to time to pay his bills.

Here we have an illustration of one of the simplest forms of the transactions between banks and their customers, which give rise to nine tenths of the so-called "deposits" of the banks and trust companies. And it is with such deposits, obviously representing nothing more than what everybody knows as "credit," that 95 per cent. of the business of the country is carried on.

It is necessary to point out here that when a banker creates deposits of this kind, by taking the notes of his borrowing customers, he is obliged to pay out the deposits on demand just as if they were deposits of actual money. Therefore, he must keep in his vaults an amount of

money equal to a certain proportion of such deposits. The money so kept is called the bank's "reserves." The necessity for maintaining them is, in the final analysis, the only thing that places a limit on a bank's ability to create deposit liabilities in the manner just described.

For banks in the national system, the amounts of these reserves are carefully prescribed by law. Every bank in certain cities of 500,000 or more inhabitants, called "reserve cities," has to keep a reserve equal to 25 per cent. of its deposits. Banks outside the reserve cities have to keep reserves equal to 15 per cent. of their deposits. Though the law allows the banks some latitude in using these reserve moneys, they must always be available to the banks on a moment's notice. The penalty for any bank's persistence in allowing them to remain below the legal limit is the withdrawal of the bank's right to continue in business.

When, therefore, Brown of Kansas went to Jones, the president of the national bank, to arrange to get his loan of $50,000, Jones's bank must have had at its command, either in its vaults or elsewhere, an amount of "lawful money" sufficient to cover not only 15 per cent. of the deposits then standing on its books to the credit of customers, but also to enable it to put aside enough additional to maintain the legal limit for Brown's $50,000.

But suppose Brown's need for credit at the bank had arisen about the middle of August. His bank is in the heart of the wheat belt. It is easy to imagine the bank president apologizing for his inability to grant the required loan because of the great demand being made upon the resources of his bank by the farmers of the community for actual currency to facilitate the moving of their crops to market. One can almost hear him saying:

"You know, Brown, how much I'd like to accommodate you, but it's impossible this time. Yes, it's quite true, we have several hundred thousand dollars of perfectly good currency in our vaults, but remember we're face to face with our annual money crisis, due to demands for crop moving, and we're so close to our *legal reserve limit* now that I dread to contemplate it. We bankers have to scramble hard for reserve money at this time of the year. In this respect, it's every fellow for himself and the devil take the hindmost. You're not the only one in town to suffer. Smith, the department store man, was in yesterday for $50,000; and White, the hardware merchant, wanted $25,000 the day before. Had to refuse 'em both. But there'll be plenty to go round shortly. Come in and see me then."

Thus do we see the moral of the story about the hospital superintendent and his locked emergency rooms. To complete the picture of Brown's experience, we have only to imagine him under the necessity of stopping work on his contracts for the want of necessary materials to carry them through, throwing his masons, carpenters, plasterers, and all the rest of his workmen out of work, at least temporarily, and possibly being himself confronted with bankruptcy.

Such an anomaly as this the reformers of the currency are trying to obviate in the future. They are trying to make a currency that can expand to take care of Brown and his neighboring business men, even in the crop-moving season, if their business is sound and warrants credit. Under the proposed law the national banks will have put capital in a regional reserve bank which will not deal with the public. One of the important functions of these new banks will be to act as common centres where the reserves of all the banks in their region will be brought together and rendered more useful. The national banks in every region will have the right to ask their reserve bank to rediscount commercial paper such as Brown's note (if it is within the proposed limits of time). To go back to Brown's case. Under the proposed law the bank president would not have been forced to refuse the loan. The bank would simply have endorsed the note and forwarded it to its regional bank. The regional bank would have held it as a part of the Jones bank's reserve.

Again, in the new law, it is proposed to establish a system of what is called "acceptance," now practically unknown among our business practices — indeed, a practice that is made a criminal offense under the

national banking law as it now stands. An "acceptance" may be explained in this way, by supposing that Smith, the department store man, needed his credit at the bank to pay for an invoice of toys "made in Germany." Instead of taking book credit and arranging for the transfer of that credit to the foreign seller, he would have told the seller to draw a draft on him for the stipulated sum. He would then have arranged with his local bank to accept the draft, or, in other words, to become the primary debtor in the transaction. For this service he would have paid a commission similar to the discount that would have been charged on his note. The Kansas bank, in turn, would have been able, under the new system, to discount the acceptance at the regional bank and get credit for the proceeds on the books.

It is clear how, by means of these systems of rediscount and acceptance, *bona fide* trade debts, possessing the power of self-settlement, can be used, as one authority expresses it, "through the agency of the banks in the settlement of similar debts, without locking up cash reserve."

But there is another important part, which these self-adjusting debts — these notes and bills accepted for rediscount — may play in our commercial life. And this is where we come to the idea underlying the "elastic currency" about which so much has been said these last few years. Under the plan of banking and currency reform proposed in the measure now receiving the attention of Congress, these bills may become the basis for an entirely new kind of currency. That is, the banks that make up the new system, instead of being compelled as now to allow such bills to repose quietly in their portfolios as unliquid assets, impounding their reserves, will have the further choice of turning in to the regional banks all bills that are of proper maturity and, after setting aside a certain amount of gold as additional security, receiving for them a supply of new currency. The total supply of these new circulating notes will, in the very nature of the case, be large or small, according as the trade and commerce of the nation giving rise to the bills is at high or low tide.

A PICTURE OF MEXICO

THE PROBLEM OF THE ELEVEN MILLIONS FARTHEST DOWN

THREE years ago Mexico celebrated the centenary of its independence from Spain, the eightieth year of Porfirio Diaz's life, and the thirtieth year of his reign. There was a wonderful celebration of these events, but even while the celebration was in progres people were asking "After Diaz, What?" The answer was almost invariably the expressive Latin-American shrug of the shoulders. If your informant was very communicative he answered, "Who can tell? Another dictator? Revolutions?"

Many rightly feared the revolutions. Some hoped for another dictator. Practically no one looked forward to an era of real democracy.

The standard of living of the mass of its people is the one fundamental basis of judgment of a nation. By this criterion Mexico is a failure. The great majority of its citizens are illiterate, extremely poor, lamentably immoral, practically without political power, and not even safe in their personal rights. In the hundred years of the Mexican Republic, the Mexican people have learned little or nothing about self-government or right living.

A clear and vivid picture of the state of these people comes to the WORLD'S WORK in a letter from a long-time resident of that country:

I have lived in this country continuously for many years. During this time my

relations with the people have been both harmonious and intimate, and it should not be too much to say that this opportunity has brought to me a knowledge of their character, their sorrows, and their attitude toward constituted authority which could have been gained in no other way. I have been with them in their humble palm huts when their children have first opened their eyes upon the indifference of their Fatherland toward them; I have been with them and given them material assistance in their struggles to get the plainest food and the scantiest clothing; I have again been with them at the supreme moment and helped them to close the eyes of their loved ones upon the continuing indifference of their Fatherland; and I have joined their straggling processions to the "Campo Santo," and there helped them to lay their dead away into hospitable graves, the first and only peaceful rest they have ever known. I have heard from their own lips the story of their ancient wrongs; I have seen with my own eyes their brutal punishment for trivial offenses; I have witnessed the despoilment of their small, hard-earned savings of years; in common with them I have myself been a victim of the "gentleman" with a handkerchief over his face, and also of his cousin who operates from the offices without need of the handkerchief — who counts upon and receives protection from higher sources.

It may, therefore, be readily understood that my viewpoint is the viewpoint of the common people — eleven million human beings of a total of fifteen million — who for generations have been forced by their grasping superiors to remain in abject poverty surrounded by social conditions that would be a blot upon the civilization of any country. Neither the fact of their poverty nor that of their dense illiteracy has appealed to the governing class. If criminals everywhere are recruited from these conditions and if Mexico in criminal statistics heads the list, as criminologists have stated, there still is nothing in the story of these unhappy people that has yet awakened the interest of the Mexican Government in their behalf.

But some one rises to remark that the *Huerta provisional* Government has taken note of these things and has promised reform. Nothing is ever gained in the long run by trying to deceive one's self. Beelzebub has not acquired a reputation for casting out Beelzebub. Both General Huerta and Felix Diaz have long been identified with the dominant class through their sympathies and material interests. Both are said to be wealthy, as are most of those who clung to Porfirio Diaz during his multiplied terms of maladministration, and nothing has yet been done to justify a belief that either one of them will ever initiate an effort to revolutionize human nature. *Caciquismo* (boss rule) is as much the rule in 1913 as it was in 1910. Article 16 of the Federal Constitution reads (in part):

> No one can be molested in his person, household, domicile, papers, and possessions, save by virtue of a written order emanating from a competent authority and setting forth the legal ground for the proceeding.

Notwithstanding this plain, emphatic guaranty of freedom from tyrannical molestation, I have seen, during the last month, four men of this small settlement arrested and thrust into jail, without any sort of warrant of authority, high or low, without complaint of any nature, and without being given any hearing in defense. After being in jail three days two of the men were released by paying fifty dollars each, and the other two were also let out by paying, one of them forty dollars and the other ninety, but the forty-dollar man had to buy two cases of beer.

If the Mexican Beelzebub is ever going to cast himself out, the common people of this country would very much like to know when the show is due to begin. History does not point to an example of a reformation achieved through the instrumentality of those who have created, maintained, and profited by the unfortunate conditions that make the reform necessary.

In the face of the military situation as it exists to-day, in the face of the pessimistic tone of the more enlightened public sentiment based upon the military situation, and especially in the face of the economic conditions of the common people, and of their intense bitterness toward the

erning authorities, there seems to be hing to justify the hope that there can an early pacification of the country. : masses of the people have inherited n their grandfathers a deep-seated ing of resentment, their grievances e been accumulating throughout the rs, but the iron hand of Diaz closed rn upon them and crushed their spirit so prevented open revolt so long as he ained in power. When, however, a k but well intentioned Madero pressed button and opened Pandora's Box, out the ancient wrongs and the thirst for enge, and now neither military dictator civil tyrant can gather them up and them back into the box.

Is there no balm in Gilead; is there no sician there? Why then is not the lth of the daughter of my people overed?" One American magazine er of some note says feudalism is disease, and the remedy is to break the large land-holdings and distribute land among the people. But he is taken in his diagnosis. A mere land-ling population composed of illiterate, noral, thieving owners is not a valuable t in the possessions of any nation. agrarian problem here is indeed of d importance and calls for a prompt radical solution, but in reality it is hing more than one of the elements he main question, which is justice in completest sense. This implies much e than the mere right to own, occupy, cultivate a few acres. Every hum-t citizen of this fair land must be in-cted in the rights, duties, and obliga-s attached to his citizenship. He t be made to understand that for the l of society his liberty must end where rights of his neighbor begin. He must brought to realize that the prevailing em of shuffling concubinage that has en the place of lawful marriage through-rural Mexico is subversive of the dations of the social order. He must n that industrious, sober, frugal living ssential to the contented home life of people. And he must have learned at that all these things taken together k the degree of civilization to which any on has developed. The Mexican people do not at present know any of these things. Their thoughts have never been pointed in those directions. On the contrary, whether logically or not, perhaps through the influence of example more than anything else, they have come to believe that if it is not wrong for others to steal from them it cannot be very wrong for them to steal from others. A very simple conclusion.

Here, then, is the Mexican ulcer. "Is there no physician there?" Nothing has ever occurred in the history of the country, neither before nor since the Independence of 1810, to indicate that the governing class is animated by any ideals that lead along and through the path I have pointed out. It may be asserted without fear of contradiction that the lot of the indigenous people of Mexico is no better to-day than it was thirty, fifty, seventy-five years ago, and in many places the tendency has been steadily downward. There was undoubtedly a fine development of Mexico along some lines during the rule of Diaz, but the lines all terminated in the haciendas and bank accounts of a few wealthy families — nothing inured to the benefit of the common people. Was brigandage stopped? Yes, in the *camino*, but it was permitted to flourish in other places. What difference to one can it make who relieves him of his money so long as the separation is definitely accomplished? Recognizing the imperative necessity of educating the common people, the legislature has commanded the establishment of schools throughout all the rural districts, and for their support has authorized an appropriate tax. The schools are not established but the tax is collected annually and whisked off to some bourn from which no dollar ever returns.

There is but one way to accomplish the permanent pacification of Mexico, or of any other country for that matter, and that is through the elevation of the masses to a higher plane of living. The remedy is necessarily slow in its effect, but it is sure. It has been tried. Sixty-five years ago New Mexico, Arizona, and California exchanged their Mexican ideals for a new set. They turned their backs upon their antique past of disorder, brigandage, and

revolutions, and entered at once the serenely peaceful path that leads to intellectual, moral, and material prosperity. They have resolutely continued in that path, have already become a wealthy, contented people. What New Mexico, Arizona, and California once did, Sonora, Chihuahua, Durango, and all the rest of the Mexican states may do for themselves through the same instrumentalities.

This is not to be taken as meaning that our people should hasten to pick up "The White Man's Burden," or in any other manner intervene in the present disturbed affairs of this country. Except in the single element of distance in one case and contiguity in the other, the burden of the Philippines would fall to third or fourth place when compared with the bu Mexico, and only in the very last ca should the American people tak themselves this fifty to seventy-fi responsibility.

This is a picture which it would for every American to ponder w when he talks of our duty toward M There are eleven million people in th need of political tutelage, a tutela would last for generations. Yet t everything else they do not want Am guidance. If we should help th would be against their will and our move would be viewed with hostil suspicion. And Mexico is a vast an cult country in which to maintain o

WHAT ABOUT THE FILIPINOS?

A COMMON LANGUAGE AND PRACTICAL EDUCATION THE AMERICAN PL DEVELOPING AN EFFICIENT NATION FROM A GROUP OF PEOPLES THAT HAS NEVER PRODUCED A GREAT TEACHER, PRIEST, BUSINESS MAN, OR STATESMAN

BY

CARL CROW

I WAS once fortunate enough to spend a hot January afternoon in Manila with a distinguished Filipino citizen, who has held high office under the Spanish Government, under Aguinaldo, and under the American administration. He had traveled far, read much, and acquired that rare ability of detached and impartial discussion of his own country. We were talking of patriotism.

"I have the highest patriotism," he said, "because I love my country, though it has little of which I can be proud. We are still a dependent people. Spain brought us our religion, to which we have added nothing, nor have Filipinos attained high place in the Church. We have been devout Christians for almost three centuries, but have sent no missionaries to our heathen neighbors. Instead, we are a part of the great mission field. We have in Manila Spanish universities older than either Harvard or Yale. We h tributed nothing to education graduates are able to hold bet intermediate positions in the ed system America has introduced I have invented nothing, nor have proved any of the foreign inven use. We build no ships. The Filipino merchant and no Filipi The world has yet to know the painter, sculptor, or musician. produced one painter, Juan Lun few distinguished lawyers, but no railroad builders, no engineer chitects. Foreigners have don thing to develop art and literatu and to give us a standard of id they must continue to do so, time at least, if we are to con make progress in civilization."

More than three hundred ye Spain, incident to the rule of the

ı pouring her talent into them. It
ot always the best Spain had, but in
ɔng list of officials, priests, merchants,
:ravelers there were many of more
ɔrdinary ability. Later, rich Filipinos
their sons to study in Europe and
returned to their native land after
of contact with the best thought of
ɔe. Still later, America took the
of Spain as a civilizing agent, and
her thousands to the Philippines.
:wo hundred years longer than the
nce of the United States the progress
: Philippines has been initiated and

THE SIZE OF THE PHILIPPINES
LANDS DRAWN IN BLACK AND TO SCALE ON A
THE EASTERN PART OF THE UNITED STATES

by forces from without. It is a
time, because of the somewhat insis-
lemands for political independence,
:t up the account: to see what Fili-
have accomplished for themselves;
they have contributed to the prog-
f the world in payment for the debt
owe; how far they have achieved
than political independence.
is peculiarly appropriate, in this
ıre of achievement, to give first
leration to religion, the most powerful
sually the first motive for the develop-
of individual thought. Europeans
heir wars for religious freedom long before they began to fight for personal rights. The Filipinos occupy a peculiar position in the religious world, for they are the only Christian Orientals, the only Christian Malays, as the result of one of the most successful missionary enterprises ever undertaken. All who count in the affairs of the Islands are Christian, and almost as completely Roman Catholic. In few other countries can Christians be found who are so punctilious in observing the forms of their religion, and so apparently devout. But three centuries have failed to produce a Filipino churchman of note and, to the present time, the affairs of the Catholic Church and of other denominations are administered by foreigners, with Filipinos occupying only minor positions as parish priests. The striking fact is that they should have remained so loyal without attaining any position of importance in the Church.

A similar domination by foreigners is found in the field of business. In the import and export trade of the Islands, the Filipino is a force of no importance whatever. The rapidly growing foreign commerce of the Islands is entirely in the hands of Americans, English, Germans, Spaniards, and Chinese, who face no Filipino competition present or prospective. It is not extraordinary that the bulk of this trade should be in the hands of foreigners. Even in China, the natives have a minor share of the foreign trade which was developed by foreigners and has naturally remained in their hands. The Chinese are now preparing to take a larger share of this trade, following the example of the Japanese who are gradually crowding out the foreign exporters. In no other civilized country do the natives occupy such a negligible position as in the Philippines.

In the domestic retail trade the dependence of the Filipino is more strikingly shown, for the 50,000 Chinese in the Islands control 90 per cent. of its entire volume. There are practically no Filipino stores except the few small places conducted by Filipino women for the sale of native-made hats and cloth. There is no Filipino bank; the development of no one of the many industries of the Islands can be attri-

buted to Filipino initiative, energy, or capital. The great sugar, hemp, and tobacco industries were all developed by foreigners who still control them.

Filipinos have always shown a particular aptitude for music, and in few other countries does music play such a large part in the daily life of the people. They master all kinds of instruments readily, and even among the poorest classes there are few who have not some form of musical accomplishment. No village is without its orchestra, which is called out on every occasion and plays for hours, apparently out of the sheer joy of the music. Yet the Filipinos are the one people without a national music, and no Filipino composition is known to fame. They have never produced either a vocalist or an instrumentalist of more than local note. All who attended the St. Louis Exposition will remember the fine Philippine Constabulary Band which attracted so much favorable comment. The organization is still in existence and no one could demand finer concerts than those it gives at dusk on the cool green of the Luneta at Manila, but the leader of the band is a Negro from Boston, and no Filipino is able to take his place.

When Filipinos from different parts of the Islands meet they must depend upon a language other than their own for a common means of expression. Until a few years ago this was invariably Spanish; now it may be either Spanish or English, but neither is the common language of the people, who speak many different dialects. The two Bible societies in Manila have published the Bible in eleven languages, but translations into many others will be necessary before all the people can be reached with the printed Scriptures. The Filipinos have always taken special pride in their abilities as writers and orators, but there is no Filipino literature worthy of the name, and no one of their languages is rich enough in words to be much more than a merely colloquial medium. It is significant that when Filipinos talk of political independence they must use the English or Spanish word, for there is no word to *express that idea in any of their own languages.*

This dependence on foreign lan
is naturally a serious hindrance t
development of independent thought
expression of public opinion. Let
to imagine a situation in the United
which would parallel that in the
pines. The use of English, we wi
would be confined to a part of th
England States; around New York n
but Dutch would be spoken; alo
Great Lakes, French; on the Atlantic
Italian; in the Gulf States, Sp
throughout the Middle West, Portu
in the Central States, German;
Northwest, Swedish; in California, R
In addition to these general di
imagine many smaller isolated com
ties where Chinese, Japanese, Yi
Arabic, and many other languages
be dominant. All these languag
this hypothetical state are purely
quial, enriched by no literature, an
served in a printed form by only
translations. Most of the people
no language other than their own
scattered through them are the few c
men who are able to speak Latin or G
which are the languages of gover
and business and the only means of
mon expression in the country. T
the situation in the Philippines, a
vated by the Filipino characteristi
following any one in authority. Obvi
under such conditions, the ruling clas
always be selected from the educated
cent., on whom the 95 per cent. mus
pend for leadership. It is an oligar
not possibly a democracy.

Unfortunately for any estimat
Filipino attainments, this 5 per cent
compose the "Illustrado" class, an
men of pure Filipino blood, but are l
of the mestizo or half-caste popul
As in all other parts of the Far Eas
residence of foreigners has been fol
by the growth of these half-castes
here they occupy a unique position.
proportionate number of mestiz
Manila is probably no greater tha
number of Eurasians in the C
treaty ports. But the Eurasians are
inferior class, of no social or business
ing, and generally considered a neg
element in all affairs of the commun

: Philippines the situation is different, for every mixture of ood has tended to make the half- erior to the native. During the centuries of Spanish rule the class in native affairs was, as posed of mestizos. A very large of the prominent men of the e admittedly of mixed blood, and ible doubt exists whether more proverbial exception are of pure izal, the most famous man — and say the only famous man — pro- the Islands, was the direct des- of a Chinese trader, and his vas of Filipino-Chinese-Spanish with a little Japanese blood. . Rizal the only distinguished vhose mixed blood was a matter on knowledge, one might ignore but he occupies no unique posi- e history of the Islands.

ld be offensive, though easily to single out many individual : this general statement is true: no who has ever become known ca, either through his attain- his political prominence, is more w generations removed from a icestor. Almost all of them are of Spaniards or Chinese. Like f-castes the world over, they rather equivocal social position. always hoping for recognition by the foreigners with whom brought in contact and to whom be related; a motive which not tly leads them to ignore the ties they are bound to the native Their ranks include many itriots, but they are a dangerous whom to depend for political

e, indeed, have the Filipinos for themselves that, when Ameri- charge of the Islands, they were ny of the accoutrements or trap- : go to form a nation. They had on language, no means of easy ation, were divided by forests, nountains, rivers, and seas into mmunities ignorant and dis- f one another. They were with- common traditions or ideals, and among the minor things they needed was a national hero. As the leader of the recent insurrection, Aguinaldo held the highest place in the esteem of his countrymen, but he was a flimsy hero on whom to centre the ideals of a nation and one who might use his prestige to the danger of the American administration. It was sound constructive statesmanship of the highest order for Americans to encourage the Filipino people to idealize one of their martyred fellow-countrymen who had expressed the highest Filipino aspirations, and it was equally sound politics to establish a hero whose fame would overshadow that of Aguinaldo and thereby lessen that leader's ability to make future trouble.

Common report in Manila credits to Governor Taft the inspiration of this move, and the selection of the hero, José Rizal, who had been executed by the Spaniards less than two years before the battle of Manila Bay. Rizal was undoubtedly the most illustrious man ever produced by the Philippines, though hardly deserving the high esteem to which he has been forced by enterprising American methods. His chief claim to distinction lies in the authorship of "Noli Me Tangere," a brilliant novel written in Spanish and translated into Tagálog, and into English under the title, "The Social Cancer."

This book, written in 1886, was a graphic picture of the conditions in the Philippines under Spanish rule, being one of several books in which he sought to portray the mistakes of the Spanish administration and also to show the Filipinos how much of their distress was due to their own ignorance and indolence. As a brilliant writer, as a profound and versatile scholar, and as one who had a most sympathetic understanding of his people's miseries, he is deserving of recognition, but he was not a great man in the sense that he ever did anything or was capable of doing anything to relieve the suffering he was able to depict with such dramatic power; and the shortest excursion into his private life is decidedly unpleasant.

But Rizal is the hero of the Philippines. One of the first acts of the Taft Commission was to appropriate $15,000 for a Rizal monument, which now adorns the Luneta.

An important province was named after him. His vignette adorns the two-peso bank note and the two-centavo postage stamp. The anniversary of his execution is a widely celebrated legal holiday.

It was not long after this artificial fame had been so successfully created for him that Filipino orators conjured with his name just as American orators juggle with the names of Washington, Lincoln, Jefferson, and the minor state heroes. It would be impossible now to stop the Rizal cult. Cigar boxes bear his picture and, in the heyday of his glory, an exhilarating drink was known as the "Rizal cocktail."

The destinies of the Philippines have been worked out under foreign supervision, and by a caprice of fate that supervision has been American for the last fifteen years. This time falls roughly into three periods of almost equal length. The first was the period of war and insurrection which, in the Philippines, is an almost forgotten part of history but still furnishes most of the material for controversial Philippine literature in America. It is interesting as an academic study and as nothing more. Following this came the period of reconstruction, inevitable after every conflict but long drawn out in the Philippines by the incidence of drouth, locusts, crop shortage, brigandage, cholera, plague, and rinderpest. It was not until after 1906 that the Bureau of Health was able to devote any of its energies to anything but the fight against the epidemics; and the Department of Agriculture was completely occupied until an even later date with locusts and the rinderpest. It was during this period that the civil government of the Philippines sought to repair the ravages of the war and to bring the Islands to the normal condition of pre-insurrectionary days. Last came the present period during which the Americans charged with the administration of the Islands have sought to give the Filipinos all those accomplishments involved in that often used, and much abused, phrase, "The capacity for self-government."

To accomplish this, the Americans have set about the creation of a homogeneous people out of more than a dozen tribes speaking different languages, divided between many islands and, if not a hostile to one another, at least l that sympathy and understandi sary to make them a nation. T of American accomplishment is t tion of a nation able to take care o It is an interesting experiment w parallel in the world's history and in much more than is dreamed of l average American tax-payer who is none of the expenses. The cost of th rectionary period was about $300,0 that figure being the one so often by those who believe that war, if exp is wrong. In addition to this su Congress of 1903 voted an appropri $3,000,000 for the relief of famine administration of the Islands, the lishment of the educational syste sanitary reforms, and road-building been entirely at the expense of th pinos. Americans have never pa the construction of a Filipino schoo hospital, or road, nor have they ev tributed a cent toward the salaries many American teachers or other emp of the Islands. The only item in t tion with the Philippines which can erly be credited to the America payer is the support of the troop tioned there, and the erection of ment fortifications. The troops... Philippines are in about the same portion to the population as they the United States.

Few Americans realize how muc involved in this work undertaken Philippines, for it is difficult to vi the extent of Filipino dependen individuals and as a potential s They were practically a country invalids. Nearly every family h consumptive member and in some inces all were found to harbor int parasites, hookworm, germs of m and amœbic dysentery. The Fil as a people were too ill to do much or to take a healthy interest in life. statement that American sanitation has saved ten times the number of lost through American bullets gives faint idea of the work done. Fil have been taught that water in sewage has drained should not be

FIRST STEPS IN PHILIPPINE EDUCATION

TEACHING THE MEN THE TEAMWORK AND ACTIVITY OF BASEBALL AND TEACHING THE WOMEN THE PRINCIPLES OF CIVILIZED COOKING AND HOUSEWIFERY

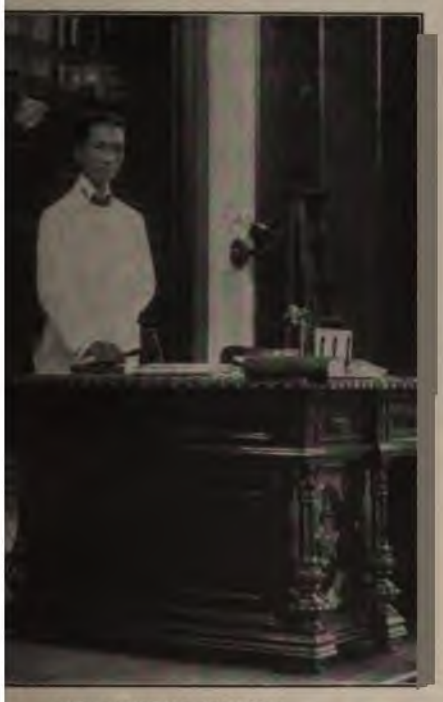
A PHILIPPINE TOWN OF THE BEST TYPE

SHOWING THE HIGHEST DEVELOPMENT OF NATIVE ARCHITECTURAL AND BUILDING CAPACITY EVEN AFTER HUNDREDS OF YEARS OF CONTACT WITH A PEOPLE OF A SUPERIOR ABILITY AND TRADITION

AN ORDINARY PHILIPPINE VILLAGE

IN WHICH THE LOW ORDER OF NATIVE CAPACITY FOR PROGRESS IS ILLUSTRATED BY THE CHARACTERISTIC FLIMSINESS OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION AND BY THE INSANITARY LIVING CONDITIONS. BY FAR *THE LARGER PROPORTION* OF THE PEOPLE LIVE IN SURROUNDINGS SIMILAR TO THESE

ıking, and that something more than ıyers of the pious are necessary to smallpox, cholera, the plague, and ıption. Considering the fact that e in the banana belt, the Islands are markably clean and healthy. Round ers, anemic bodies, and a shuffling e still characteristic of the Filipinos, the baseball-playing youngsters re growing up to be the future of the country lie the foundations urdy, manly, industrious race.
ducation, Americans have sought to



MR. SERGIO OSMENA

PEAKER OF THE PHILIPPINE ASSEMBLY, AN E OF INDEPENDENCE, AND PROBABLY THE OPULAR LEADER IN THE PHILIPPINES. HE INESE BLOOD

olish two things: to give the people mon language, and to give every t a means to make a living. The being accomplished through the g of the English language, which is uch more widely used than Spanish, re important than any of the native s. But it is still chiefly the language younger people, who are not yet ant characters in public affairs. e accomplishment of the second, the schools have been turned into a

DR. PARDO H. TOVERA

A MEMBER OF THE PHILIPPINE COMMISSION IN MR. TAFT'S ADMINISTRATION AS GOVERNOR-GENERAL, AND A LEADING OPPONENT OF PHILIPPINE INDEPENDENCE

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MR. MANUEL ERNSHAW

THE RESIDENT COMMISSIONER IN CONGRESS FROM THE PHILIPPINES AND A WEALTHY ENGINEER. HIS FATHER WAS AN ENGLISHMAN

A CHARACTERISTIC CONTRAST BETWEEN THE INSUBSTANTIAL PHILIPPINE ROMBLON, THE CAPITAL OF THE PROVINCE OF ROMBLON, WITH ITS HUDDLED NATIVE HUTS AND NARROW, BY THE SPANISH AND

system of industrial education. In the early days of American work there, the schools were modeled on the popular plan in the United States, leading through primary, grammar, high, and normal grades to the University. In a short time American teachers saw the folly of a fancy education for people who were unable to mend a broken gate. The schools were adding to the already large class of clerks and lawyers, while the country was sorely in need of carpenters and blacksmiths. When government buildings were to be erected, it was impossible to find fifty native carpenters to undertake the work, which was given to Chinese. The educated Filipino went in for clerkships, the Church, or the law, and particularly into such light mental activities as the publication of newspapers, of which Manila has a more than plentiful supply. The *uneducated native* was a servant, a fisherman, or a farmer. There was very little native skilled labor.

An attempt was made at once to fill the need, and the educational system was revised overnight. In purely book learning, they went back to the standards of our grandfathers, demanding little more than a knowledge of the "three R's." In industrial training they approximated the standard our grandchildren may set up, their ideal being to establish a school system wherein every student would be graduated from the school to the pay roll. They have already gone far toward accomplishing this ideal and, for the first time in its history, there is now in the country a class of young Filipinos able to do useful things with their hands, and proud of it.

But the most far-reaching thing in our school system is the teaching of English —giving the Filipinos a common language.

As yet there are probably not much

BUILDINGS AND THE PERMANENT STRUCTURES ERECTED BY FOREIGN RULERS

INSANITARY STREETS, DOMINATED BY MASSIVE GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS THAT HAVE BEEN CONSTRUCTED AMERICAN OFFICERS

more than a small per cent. of the population that speak English. Spanish is still heard more than English because it is the language of the older generation who are more in evidence than the younger generation that knows English. Yet there is no doubt but that we have made greater headway than Spain made in teaching the Filipinos Spanish in three centuries of occupation. In the face of these facts the success of our short effort to teach English is extraordinary.

The teaching of English and industrial education are only two of the many phases of the work America is doing in the Islands to create a nation for a people who have been unable to build one for themselves. Roads have been constructed, serving not only the needs of commerce but also making it possible for the natives to become acquainted with one another and so lose that mutual hostility and distrust which have always separated them. Filipinos have been given a constantly increasing share in the affairs of the Government. They have practically complete control of the municipal and provincial governments and a large share in the insular government, particularly in the courts, owing to the very large supply of lawyers who were available. Naturally most of the Filipino officials came from the mestizo class and it must be some years before the pure-blood Filipino is trained to the point that he will not have to depend entirely upon this class to supply the officers. Whether or not the pure-blood Filipino will ever be able to compete successfully with the mestizo remains to be determined by the future. Now, for the first time, he has an equal opportunity of education, and there is reason to believe that with the training he is being given by Americans he will attain the average

THE FOREIGN BUSINESS QUARTER OF MANILA

AS THE SIGNS INDICATE, THE HIGHER ORDER OF TRADE IS CONDUCTED BY FOREIGN MERCHANTS, FOR THE NATIVE FILIPINOS HAVE NEVER DEVELOPED A SUCCESSFUL MERCANTILE CLASS

of mestizo efficiency. But the Filipinos themselves have not the men capable to carry on this work begun by the Americans.

The experiment of granting the franchise to the Filipinos has not been entirely satisfactory, for the native voter is too easily led by the powerful ones in his own community. The elections never fail to bring out many candidates and the average campaign is a riot of oratory. But in a careful inquiry made in the Philippines I was unable to learn of a

WHERE MOST OF THE NATIVE TRADING IS DONE

A STREET IN THE TONDO DISTRICT OF MANILA, AT THE CENTRE OF THE SMALLER SHOPS WHICH NOW, AS THEY HAVE BEEN FOR GENERATIONS, ARE OWNED ALMOST EXCLUSIVELY BY CHINESE

THE SCHOOL OF COMMERCE IN MANILA

AN AMERICAN EXPERIMENT DEVISED TO OVERCOME THE MERCANTILE INEFFICIENCY OF THE FILIPINOS BY TEACHING SOME OF THE MORE INTELLIGENT NATIVES THE PRINCIPLES OF MERCHANDISING

single municipal election which was fought out on local issues as in America. A surprisingly large number of city officials are elected because of their avowed determination to secure independence from America, lower the rate of taxation, or give employment to a large number of natives. One man, who has never failed of election, confined his campaign speeches to stories of sanguinary encounters with the American troops during the insurrection.

These deficiencies cannot be set down

SHIPPING IN THE PASIG RIVER, MANILA

THE SMALL, THATCHED BOAT FAIRLY INDICATES THE COMPARATIVE STAGE OF PROGRESS OF NATIVE PHILIPPINE COMMERCE

as evidences of failure on the part of the American administration. Most of the voting and office-holding Filipinos had reached maturity before America took any share in the government of the Islands, and they are only slightly affected by the change in administration. American educational effort has been centred on the younger people, and the students of the first time before the new ideas are dominant over the old.

The Filipino has accomplished little or nothing for himself, and those who are hopeful of his future progress prefer to charge this to the narrowness and unprogressiveness of Spanish rule. This has now been replaced by America's liberal rule, in which Filipinos are encouraged in

A MEETING OF THE PHILIPPINE ASSEMBLY

THE LOWER BRANCH OF THE PHILIPPINE LEGISLATURE, COMPOSED MOSTLY OF NATIVE MEMBERS. THE UPPER HOUSE IS THE PHILIPPINE COMMISSION

American schools are just now coming into voting age. They have been given a thorough preparation for the duties of citizenship, and an improvement may be expected. But great changes in the character of the people must be slow, owing to the enormous prestige of age, common in all Oriental countries. The parents rule as in China and Japan, and this parental authority does not end with the arrival of the child at voting age. So no matter how rapidly the American educational programme goes forward, it must be some every possible way to develop themselves physically and mentally. They are now vastly more prosperous than ever before and have lost much of their social antagonism. With the increasing use of English as a common language, with the rapidly extending system of roads, and with the increase in efficiency and health, the immediate progress of the Filipinos must be great, but we have yet to see any indications that they will be able to maintain a government as stable and progressive, let us say, as even the Government of Mexico.

AMERICAN TOMOBILES ABROAD

HOW OUR EXPORTS OF MOTOR CARS HAVE LEAPED IN VALUE FROM $4,000,000 TO $28,000,000 IN SIX YEARS — AMERICAN MACHINES NOW SOLD IN LARGE NUMBERS IN EVERY PART OF THE WORLD

BY

REGINALD McINTOSH CLEVELAND

EW of the chapters of the brief and remarkable history of the automobile industry in the United States are more romantic than that which is still in ng — the story of motor car ex- n a short year or two there a change which has amounted volution. For two decades an rket for all that Europe could or nd us in machines and practice, try has suddenly, almost magic- me a leading source of automobile r the nations of the world.

cessful have America's scientific, e methods of production proved American automobile is fast into popularity and possession European market. It is finding also in ever-increasing numbers out-of-the-way corners of the to the broad-streeted cities of merica; into the teeming principalities of India, from Calcutta to the Himalayas; into South Africa and East Africa; the Far East and the Antipodes — everywhere that the white man has set his foot and begun his civilization. Not long ago a car made in Detroit was driven from Kalgan, at the end of the Peking-Kalgan Railway, across the Desert of Gobi, and delivered at Urga, in Mongolia, to the "Tasha Lama" or Living Buddha, who, next to the Dalai Lama of Thibet, ranks as the great man of Lamaism. Still more recently a machine built in Indianapolis broke the record from Melbourne to Sydney, Australia, by covering the 573 miles over a very poor road in 19 hours and 2 minutes. Last year 30 low-priced American cars of a single make were sold in Congoland, two or three of them going to native chiefs. To May 1, 1912, 743 cars of this make had been sent to the Straits Settlements. From that date to the first of May of this year,

2,093 cars were shipped to that section of the world. To British South Africa 1,041 went during the same period, 162 going to one dealer. During the single month of May, of this year, 249 were shipped. India, during 1913, will get 800 of these American cars.

In South Africa the business of the maker of this particular car has grown very large. Not only are there agencies in the chief cities, but these agents have also been induced to establish branches in many small settlements and remote communities, so that the whole region is adequately net-worked with dealers whose business it is to popularize on the veldt an automobile made in Detroit. This policy of minor agencies was opposed at first in South Africa, for the large dealers could not see any profit in it and held that they could cover the outlying districts in a satisfactory way by visits two or three times a year. They did not believe that there was a sufficient market in places of this character to warrant a resident agent. When the home company threatened to establish its own branch houses in the territory, however, they established the agencies and these little cars have been selling ever since by the half dozen or more.

The foreign market for American motor cars is not confined, however, by any means to the low-priced machines. One well known company, whose product sells for about $2,000, has exported during the last year 1,611 cars, of a total retail value of approximately $3,222,000. Nevertheless it is true that the average price of exported automobiles has fallen remarkably year by year. For the fiscal year 1912 it was $990; for 1911, $1,100; and for 1910, 1909, and 1908 it was $1,380, $1,700, and $1,880, respectively. During the same period the average price of the machines imported by the United States rose almost as notably. Thus, for 1912 it was $2,216; 1911, $2,138; 1910, $1,936; 1909, $1,788.

Further comparison of the export and import statistics makes graphically clear the rapid usurpation by the United States

SPANISH BULLFIGHTERS IN AN AMERICAN CAR IN MADRID

of Europe's original position as the producer of motor cars. Not only does the American export total expand prodigiously, but the American imports from Europe dwindle astonishingly. In 1906, which was the year of greatest imports, automobiles worth $4,910,208 were brought here from overseas. In the fiscal year 1907 the import valuation had dropped to $4,000,000; in 1911 imports were only $2,446,248; and in the fiscal year 1912, $2,000,000. Very different is the story when we turn to the export column. Thus in 1906 we exported machines valued at $4,409,136; in 1911 the figure rose to $21,636,661; and in the fiscal year 1912 to $28,300,139, including parts and tires.

Some of the sources of the imports and destinations of the exports are also illuminating. During the fiscal year of 1912 only 963 cars were imported. Of these, 401 came from France, 188 from Great Britain, 131 from Italy, 116 from Germany, and 127 from all other countries. In 1906 we sent $1,000,000 worth to Great Britain, but in 1911 that country took American cars to the value of $3,700,000, besides $7,000,000 worth which went to Canada and $1,362,902 worth which went to Australia and other British colonies. In that year France took $532,121 worth.

Indeed, a review of the figures makes it clear why Great Britain has become more wrought up over the automobile situation in its American aspects than other countries across the Atlantic, for there the balance of trade has swung more heavily than with other nations from the credit to the debit side of the ledger. In the fiscal years 1909, 1910, and 1911 Great Britain sent us, respectively, 88 cars, valued at $291,200; 54 cars, valued at $170,555; and 50 cars, valued at $137,580. In the same years, however, Great Britain bought from us 427 cars, valued at $607,100; 1,101 cars, valued at $1,076,485; and 3,743 cars, valued at $2,961,320, respectively.

Various explanations have been put forward — on the British side of the water — to account for this condition.

AT THE DOOR OF A CUBAN INN

AN AGENCY FOR AMERICAN AUTOMOBILES IN CHRISTCHURCH, NEW ZEALAND
ALL THE CARS ARE OF ONE AMERICAN MAKE

A representative of the Institution of Automobile Engineers of England, upon returning from a visit to this country last summer, ascribed it to the comparative freedom which the American industry enjoyed from the tyrannies of trade unionism. Free trade at home has been decried by many British writers on the subject as a principal cause, and other reasons have been given, including the rather lame one, in view of the mathematics of the case, that our manufacturers were content to turn out an article not only low in price but deficient in quality. Last September a meeting convened in London to discuss the situation, but beyond some vague plans for competition little was done. Since that time there has been talk of the formation of a huge syndicate to produce cars on the American scale, but thus far it has hardly gone beyond the stage of discussion.

The American manufacturer's explanation of the success of American automobiles abroad is concentration and quantity production. By concentration he means the limiting of every maker to a few models, perhaps to only one chassis and perhaps two or three models of body. This is something undreamed of in Europe until very recently. There, the practice is for a maker to turn out five or six, or even ten, different chasses of different horsepowers and varying designs, intended to

TWO AMERICAN-MADE AUTOMOBILES IN RUSSIA
BOTH THE TRUCK AND THE PASSENGER CAR ARE IN DAILY SERVICE ON THE STREETS OF ST. PETERSBURG

meet special conditions of service. It is announced as a momentous innovation that next year one of the leading English makers will produce 5,000 cars of a single model and, in addition, drop some of the models which he has been manufacturing.

Naturally, specialization after the American plan leads to high class workmanship. This is a part of the problem which the Europeans can readily understand, but when you tell them that quantity also means quality in automobile manufacture you are propounding an idea that is altogether novel to them. To the German mind, for instance, it has seemed an utter impossibility until very recently that the two could go hand in hand and that an output double, treble, or some larger multiple of anything which his factories had dreamed of could possibly — and even partly because of its magnitude — be an output of sterling worth. This notion of large-scale production is now beginning to take hold on the Continent and in Great Britain, and manufacturers are announcing production schedules that would have seemed astounding only a year or two ago.

AN AMERICAN INVASION OF HOLLAND
BY SALESMEN OF AMERICAN AUTOMOBILES

But it is only a beginning and it may safely be predicted that some years will elapse before annual outputs of 40,000 to 50,000 cars, that are by no means startling on this side of the water, become common abroad. In producing nearly 200,000 cars in a year, as the most fecund of the motor companies of the United States will do in 1913, there is small chance of rivalry from overseas in the near future. The manufacture of 1,000 complete automobiles a day, during the busy season, is a big proposition even for the land of big corporations and quantity production. Its effect on the foreign mind is bewildering. Some members of the Institution of Automobile Engineers last summer visited, as guests of the Society of Automobile Engineers, this factory in which the raw material, put in at one end, emerges at the other without a single backward step as a completed motor car. The president of the visiting body was asked to mark a cylinder with chalk during his inspection of the huge plant. An hour later, when he emerged from the last building, he could hardly believe his eyes when he found the cylinder he had marked doing duty with its three companions in the car that was to take him to luncheon. He thought that was pretty close to magic.

It is precisely magic of this kind, however, which has led to the enormous strides of the American car in the export trade, which has given the medium-priced machine from the "States" a commanding place in the English market, and which has made the American runabout an increasingly familiar sight on the roads of France, a country that has been making successful motor cars for a generation. It is only this grasp of the scientific economics of manufacture which makes possible the success of the machines we export, for the competition they meet and overcome is the competition of quality. Thousands of cheap and medium priced cars are made in foreign factories. But the American cars are a little cheaper for the same quality and a little sturdier for the same price. Many of them are almost "fool proof"

and, in daily service, this usually means satisfied owners.

Some things the American manufacturers could do to increase still further the distribution of their product, which is now used by aliens of almost every class and country, from President Gomez, of Venezuela, to Indian rajahs and African chiefs. Of these, some are general and others apply to particular local conditions.

Foremost is the providing of increased service and the establishment of supply stations, at agencies or elsewhere, from which the purchaser could always obtain desired parts and repairs. The lack of *facilities* of this kind has operated strongly against the American cars, notably in some districts in France. Another important matter is the control of the dealer, especially in fixing selling prices. In Brazil and other South American countries, and in Spain, one of the obstacles to the wider sale of American-made machines is the exasperating habit of the dealers of charging sometimes as much as twice the price that the car is intended to fetch, in order to swell their own profits. One method of controlling this situation, where the market warrants, is obviously to establish a branch house.

Some manufacturers seem to find no difficulty in securing the services of high

CARS OF AMERICAN MANUFACTURE OWNED IN BRAZIL

SOUTH AMERICA IS AN ESPECIALLY GOOD MARKET FOR AUTOMOBILES THAT ARE MADE IN THE UNITED STATES PRESIDENT GOMEZ, OF VENEZUELA, IS ONE OF THE PURCHASERS OF SUCH CARS

FERRYING AN AMERICAN CAR ACROSS A RIVER IN THE TROPICS

ONE REASON FOR THE WIDESPREAD DEMAND FOR AMERICAN AUTOMOBILES IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES, AND ESPECIALLY IN COUNTRIES WHERE THE ROADS ARE POOR, IS THEIR ABILITY TO KEEP GOING DESPITE ROUGH USE

class agents already on the ground; others have found the policy of pushing sales abroad by American citizens more satisfactory. Those that argue for the latter method assert that many European dealers lack the independence of action, because of their business training, which will do most to spread the wares they are

AN AMERICAN AUTOMOBILE IN INDIA

A CAR FROM DETROIT, MICH., IN SHANGHAI, CHINA

marketing. They want only "American salesmen for American goods."

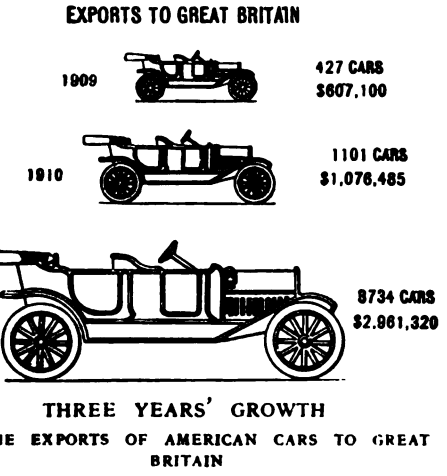
France seems sure to be a fertile field in the immediate future for the exporters of motor cars. It is clear that only the surface of the field has been scratched as yet, despite a steady increase in automobile imports from the United States during the last three years. Last year France exported automobiles valued at $42,400,000. But it imported from all countries only about $3,000,000 worth—

COMPETING WITH BRITISH MAKERS IN BRITISH EGYPT

AN AMERICAN CAR IN A NARROW STREET OF THE NATIVE QUARTER OF CAIRO

less than 2,000 cars. This market is favorable for American machines despite these figures. Light import duties make entrance into the country easy, and once there the cars achieve success on their merits. As late as a year ago a 16-horse-power model of American make, which sold for $1,600, was said to be the most popular car in France.

Conditions are quite different in the Far East. Already two American manufacturers have sent special representatives to Japan, and it is estimated that about 1,200 cars will be sold there during the next two years, and that 70 per cent. of these cars will be of American make. About 20 per cent. of all the automobiles in the Empire are now of one Detroit make. In India, the United States is

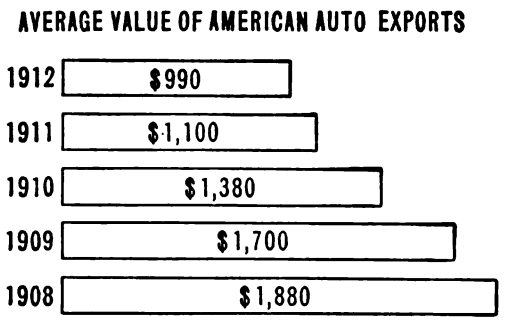


THREE YEARS' GROWTH

OF THE EXPORTS OF AMERICAN CARS TO GREAT BRITAIN

now in second place and rapidly forging to the top, the cars selling on their merits and with less advertising than is used by the European makers.

Attention to such small details as painting makes a surprising difference in some countries. Thus Chinese purchasers show a strong preference for brown cars. One of the complaints of even those Englishmen who acknowledge most freely the good points of the American cars is that they lack a few coats of varnish to give them a "smart" appearance. Some people in Great Britain object that the seats are uncomfortable. In Russia, which affords a wonderful opportunity for the extension of the American automobile

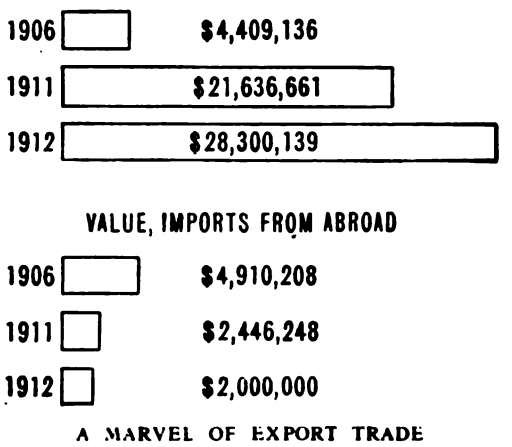


THE RISE OF THE LOW-PRICED CAR

SHOWING HOW THE AVERAGE VALUE OF EXPORTED AMERICAN AUTOMOBILES HAS DROPPED IN FIVE YEARS

trade, certain far-seeing American exporters are winning trade by giving their machines some of the lines, especially in body design, of the cars produced by the leading French and German makers. In this way they are beginning to compete with even the higher priced foreign machines which heretofore have been in control of their section of the market.

Attractive markets for the product of American factories are offered at the "foot of the world." Already one or more branch companies have been organized by exporters to handle their business in the Antipodes. They are selling cars by the hundreds a month there. For the ten months ending with April, 1913, 2,510 cars, worth $2,361,867, were shipped to British Oceanica, a showing



A MARVEL OF EXPORT TRADE

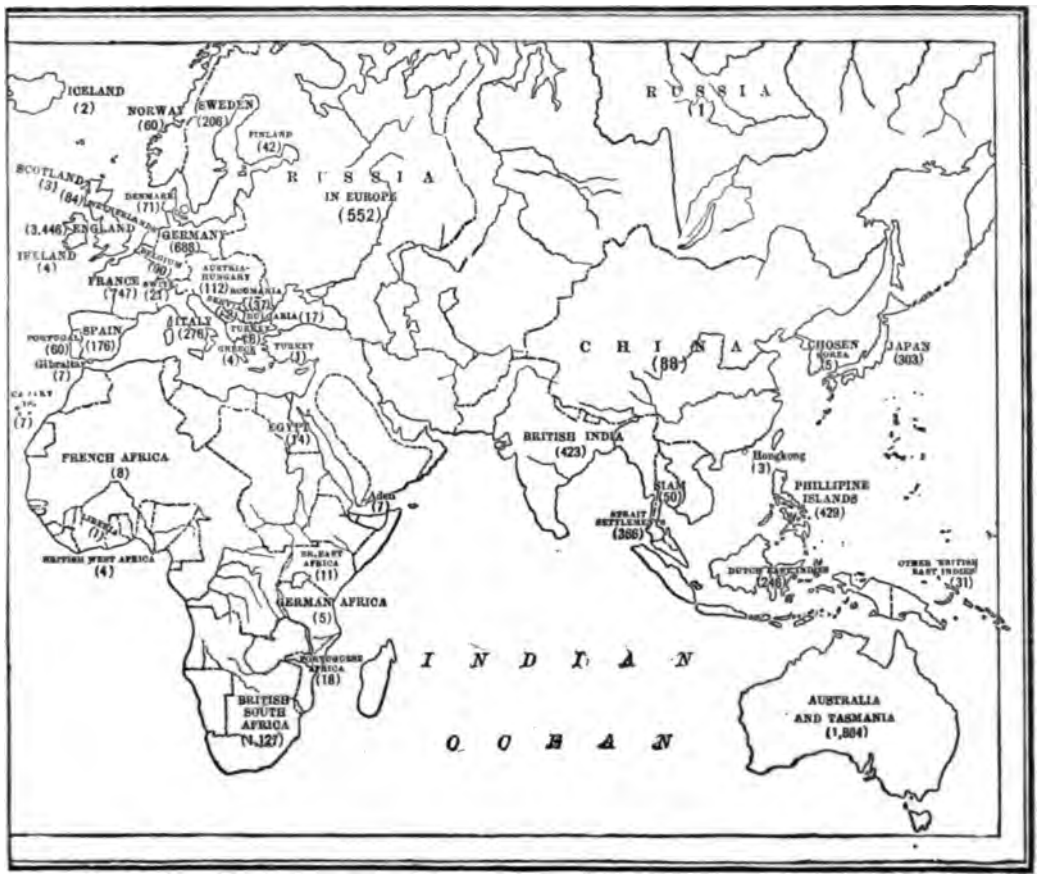
SHOWING THE AMAZING INCREASE IN OUR EXPORTS OF MOTOR CARS, AND THE STEADY DECREASE IN OUR IMPORTS, IN THE LAST SEVEN YEARS

THE NUMBER AND DISTRIBUTION OF AUTOMOBILES THAT AMERICAN MAN

which, although representing a slight falling off from the corresponding period of 1912, was more than double, both in number and value, the figures for the corresponding months of 1911.

Islands, especially, seem to take readily to the American product. Thus one of the big motor companies which manufactures a car of medium price — about $2,000 — has found the small island of Mauritius one of its best customers, in proportion to population. The same company has had great success in going off the beaten path with its product and sells many cars, not only in the South African, Canadian, English, and South American fields but also in such places as Algeria, Egypt, and Lourenço Marquez, and is now establishing agencies in Morocco and the Azores Islands.

A vast opportunity for export, as yet *hardly appreciated,* lies in the field of the commercial vehicle. Trucks of high efficiency and economy of operation have been developed by European makers, especially in Germany and France. Some are prepared to burn at least three different types of fuel without adjustment in order to meet army tests; others have been specialized in function with great success. It is not probable, therefore, that the American heavy-duty truck will rival its touring and passenger-carrying brothers in the world's market. But of the lighter truck and the delivery wagon much growth in exports may be expected. Of the 20,096 cars exported during the ten months ending with April, 1913, 737 were commercial vehicles. Their value was $1,333,367, out of a total automobile valuation of $20,666,593. This, perhaps, does not seem a large trade, but it was the first period in which commercial vehicles were listed separately and showed that the



UFACTURERS SOLD ABROAD IN THE ELEVEN MONTHS TO MAY 31, 1913

industry of exporting motor trucks contains promising possibilities.

One of the oddities of the automobile export business is concerned with "used" or second-hand cars. There is a brisk demand for machines which have passed into this stage of their history, especially for the South American countries. New York City is the centre of this trade and one of the active dealers has had an order in a single week for as many as ten cars of a certain popular make, valued in all at $6,500. Used commercial vehicles, particularly those of about one-ton capacity, are also entering the export market in considerable numbers. Nothing would please the automobile dealers more than to see all the used cars sail away overseas, for that would dispose of one of their knottiest problems at home, the basis of exchange or allowance when they take an old car on account of a new one.

In all the branches of the automobile industry, the preëminence of the American motor car is swiftly becoming an accomplished fact. It is the story of other manufactured products over again: the story of steel rails, of locomotives, of agricultural machinery, of shoes. But it is that story intensified, because it has required, roughly, half a century for the pendulum of trade to swing the United States into high place in the world market of these and other manufactures, whereas it is hardly more than twenty years since the motor car was a mere experiment, for the enjoyment and jeopardy of some unusually reckless visionary. It is no more than a decade since the term automobile was considered synonymous with a machine of foreign construction. In a dozen years America has leaped from insignificance to a place of first importance as a maker of motor cars.

MY ADVENTURES WITH THE SUGAR LOBBY

BY

CHARLES S. THOMAS

[UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM COLORADO]

SEVERAL years ago the Public Service Commission of New York investigated the Metropolitan Street Railway. One of the most conspicuous witnesses was Mr. Lemuel Ely Quigg, who was for many years an active Republican politician in New York. Mr. Quigg unblushingly related how, well fortified with Metropolitan money, he had manipulated public sentiment in the interest of that corporation. He had inspired public speakers to take the platform, he had caused the circulation of "monster citizens' petitions," he had unobtrusively directed the policy of newspapers and newspaper writers, he had organized citizens' associations and tax payers' leagues and had even financed "uprisings of labor." On the surface, these several agencies manifestly voiced popular opinion; in reality, they were merely fighting the battles of the Metropolitan Street Railway. Mr. Quigg's cleverness consisted in the fact that he frequently utilized his newspapers, his citizens' associations, his private speakers and petition-signers for his own purposes without their knowledge. Few signers of his petitions, for example, knew that the Metropolitan Street Railway paid the agents circulating them five cents for every name secured.

In a few months, Mr. Quigg testified, he had spent $151,000 in work of this kind. His "Monster Petition," which contained a million names and was tastefully bound in twenty volumes, represented an investment of $50,000.

"You spent all this money creating public sentiment favorable to the Metropolitan?" the inquisitor asked.

"No," replied Mr. Quigg. "I should not say that I created public opinion; I *merely accelerated it.*"

I certainly thank Mr. Quigg for teaching me that word. For the last few weeks the country has been listening to the testimony in the Washington lobby investigation. Most of that testimony recalls the Quigg manipulations of ten years ago. It shows that the "acceleration" proposition is by no means local in its activities. Like many other evils in our political and social organization, its scope is nation-wide.

I speak with real knowledge upon this subject because I myself have had an intimate experience with this "accelerating" spirit. I have been a member of the United States Senate only a few months, but the larger part of my time in that brief period has been spent in warding off the approaches and the attacks of those public spirited citizens who have been attempting to influence my acts as a Senator by the ostentatious parade of a manufactured public sentiment.

The recent investigation in Washington clearly showed the changed character of the American lobby. This lobby is an evolution; it adapts itself to the changing circumstances of the time. In the early days of the investigation, the apparent failure to disclose legislative activities of the old-fashioned kind brought down some ridicule upon President Wilson, whose public denunciation had inspired it. Senator after Senator testified that no man had ever attempted to buy his vote. Because no actual bribery and no attempts at bribery had been disclosed, there seemed to be a prevalent idea that Mr. Wilson had "fallen down."

Just what, however, is a lobby and a lobbyist? All the Senators were asked this question. The most generally accepted idea was that a lobbyist was a man hired to influence legislation in which he had no

real personal interest. Fundamentally, however, I think that the word "lobby" has a deeper meaning. Lawmakers are sent to Washington to legislate in the public interest. Their only masters are the people who send them. Their only consideration, in passing laws, is whether these particular laws affect favorably or unfavorably the welfare and happiness of the mass of the people. They can pass no laws that forward any private interest unless those laws, in their practical working, subserve the interest of all the people. That public interest is their only legitimate consideration; the one thing that regulates all their acts. Any effort made to substitute for this public interest a private interest I should define as lobbying. The lobbyist is a man who tries to induce the legislator to forget temporarily all the people and to do something that will promote the fortunes of a single citizen or a group of citizens. It makes no difference whether he does this for himself or for someone else, or the way in which he does it; the act is an act of lobbying and the man or woman guilty of such persuasions is a lobbyist.

At different times the lobbyist, as thus defined, has worked in different ways. The coarser our civilization has been, the coarser have been the means which he has employed. In the 'sixties and 'seventies the lobbyist was particularly brazen. He then frequently resorted to direct purchase and sale. It was in this period that the character, in the popular acceptation of the word, became a national figure. He belonged to what was then a regularly recognized profession. He devoted his energies to no single interest; his sign hung out to all comers and his services were for sale to any one who had the indispensable fees. He made his permanent residence in Washington; sometimes he maintained elaborate headquarters in the most expensive hotel, sometimes he even had an establishment of his own. He was usually a man of ingratiating social charm; the ability to entertain, indeed, was indispensable to success. He hung about the corridors, had "the entré" to committee rooms, and was a "good fellow" with influential legislators. He won votes by the outright use of money, by free passes on railroads, by entertainments, and "other things of value." He was the type which flourished in the days of the Credit Mobilier, of the Pacific Mail, and of the old Central Pacific Railroad land grants. This type has disappeared; it belongs to our national past as much as do the plainsman, the prairie schooner, and the buffalo. This old-time lobbyist perhaps still haunts our state legislatures; there may be even occasional suggestions of his presence around Washington; the outright purchaser of votes, however, has not been manifest about the Capitol for a good many years.

As his successor appeared a new molder of legislation. Instead of using directly the lobby, our great financial interests acquired the habit of directly annexing the Senate and House chambers themselves. Men came to Washington, especially to the Senate, representing, not the state which ostensibly had sent them, but these great private interests. We had Senators, not from New York, or Missouri, or Colorado, but from the railroads, the banks, the mining and the lumber interests. In 1894 the newspapers recognized this situation by generally referring to the Senators who had betrayed their party on the sugar schedule as the "Senators from Havemeyer." Clearly this form of lobbying was much more dangerous, much more "insidious" than the practices of the old Central Pacific days. It was a kind of corruption that was exceedingly difficult to trace. It nullified popular government.

But this régime likewise is rapidly passing. There are few men in Congress to-day who can be definitely pointed out as representing, not themselves or their committees, but seekers of special privilege. All our politics, in the last ten years, has focussed on attempts to drive this element out of public life. The word "progressive," as used by both parties, means this more than anything else. Such political leaders as have really won public confidence in the last decade have done so because they have embodied this idea. Last fall, the Democratic Party won a national election upon this issue.

It may safely be assumed, therefore, that our representative institutions have

survived these two forms of lobbying — outright purchase and outright representation. We cannot assume, however, that private interests who have favors to seek from the Government will abandon their efforts to control legislation. In the last few years they have elaborated what is perhaps an even more pernicious method of obtaining results. The political happenings of that period have emphasized one important fact: that the final governing force in the United States is public opinion. It is public opinion that has driven the corruptionists from our legislative halls and restored the agencies of government to the people; that has opened the eyes of the public on such important matters as railroad rates, rebates, trust control, the exploitation of natural resources, the sins of the judiciary and the tariff. Since, in the United States, public opinion, and not Congress or the President, is king, the man who controls public opinion will easily control the nation itself. And in recent years, the forces of privilege have aimed at doing precisely this thing. The men who now seek special favors of Congress rely almost exclusively upon the manipulation of public sentiment. They do not bribe, or give free passes, or pay election expenses; they attempt to make the legislator think that the thing that they want is the thing the public wants. They do not go for the man, except only occasionally; they send his constituents after him. The favor-seeking classes apparently remain quiescent themselves; the real persuasion is done by newspapers, magazines, public lecturers, publicity agents, letter-writers, petition-signers, and telegram-senders. The new lobby has seized upon everything that plays a part in forming what is apparently enlightened and independent public sentiment.

Probably the most adroit and experienced practitioners of this new art are the seekers of tariff favors. Whenever there is a suggestion of tariff revision or of legislation that may adversely affect the tariff schedules, representatives of these interests descend upon Washington. Immediately all the well-known engines of *public opinion start* working. And prob*ably of all protected* interests the most industrious and insistent are the sugar men. This is the branch of the lobbying industry with which I have chiefly come into contact. My own state, Colorado, leads all others in the production of beet sugar. It was during my term as governor that the sugar industry began; as governor, I made the first contract for the sale of public lands to the sugar growers. I have, therefore, had opportunity enough to study at first hand their methods of propaganda. These several sugar industries — the beet growers, the cane growers of Louisiana and Hawaii — have for years maintained regular and expensive headquarters in Washington. These offices have served chiefly for the dissemination of information on the sugar question. Their purpose has been to cultivate or accelerate public sentiment favorable to maintaining a high protective duty on sugar.

The head of the beet sugar men, Mr. Henry T. Oxnard, still retains some external traits of the old-fashioned lobbyist. He has the secretive manner which we associate with the professional promoter of legislation; he talks quietly; is inclined to take you entirely into his confidence; is still a good deal of a button-holer and entertainer. Mr. Oxnard was the man whose struggling efforts to start the beet industry I did something to encourage as governor of Colorado. It is hardly necessary, however, for me to attempt to draw his portrait. He did that pretty succinctly himself in his recent appearance before the Senate lobby committee. Mr. Oxnard, who is now 53 years old, prides himself, and justly, upon the fact that he represents the third generation of his family in the sugar industry. The Oxnards and the Havemeyers are the two great sugar families of America. With them the sugar industries have been for many years practically baronial seigniories. The wars of the Havemeyers and the Oxnards have been as famous, in their way, as the medieval struggles of the Percys and the Douglases. For the last twenty-three years, as Mr. Oxnard himself recently testified, he has maintained headquarters in Washington, from which he has kept a weather eye on Congress. He has mingled with Representatives and Senators; in twenty years

"he would not be surprised" if he has spent $460,000 influencing public opinion, though "not one cent was ever spent in an illegitimate way." "You can spend a lot of money" he added, coming to the point, "in newspapers and periodicals." Precisely how he had spent this money Mr. Oxnard did not reveal; when asked for the books of the American Sugar Beet Association, he found himself unable to give them up, as they had been burned. This conflagration took place two years ago; since that time, said Mr. Oxnard, the association had been keeping no books whatever. The purpose of these large expenditures, however, was perfectly plain. It was to avert "disaster" to the sugar industry — to prevent Mr. Oxnard and his fellow sugar capitalists from being "ruined." Ruination meant a lowering of the duty on sugar — or, what was scarcely foreseen until the present session, its entire removal. Whenever there was the slightest suspicion that the sugar schedule was to be affected, Mr. Oxnard always regularly made his appearance in Congress. He somewhat exultingly recited his exploits in this direction. He fought Cuban reciprocity, the annexation of Hawaii, the Wilson bill of 1894, the Dingley bill of 1897, and the provision of the Payne-Aldrich bill that admitted 300,000 tons of sugar free from the Philippines.

However, Congress has not absorbed all of Mr. Oxnard's attention, for the stock market has made certain demands upon his time. When he organized the American Beet Sugar Company, Mr. Oxnard explained, he had poured in $15,000,000 of "watered stock." He also described how he had succeeded in selling his watered stock at prices ranging from $15 to $50 a share. It also appeared that the profits in the sugar beet business were not disheartening. The Senate Committee discovered that his company had been earning something more than 15 per cent. on the original investment for the last decade.

For many years Mr. Oxnard, as head of the American Sugar Beet Association, personally directed the publicity campaign. Two years ago, however, he retired, handing over the reins to Mr. Truman Palmer and Mr. C. C. Hamlin. Mr. Palmer, in his early life an experienced newspaper man, has in late years acquired fame as a beet sugar statistician and expert. He calls his Washington office a "research bureau," is proud of the fact that he has "the finest sugar library in the world," and has a scientific as well as a journalistic interest in his subject. Indeed, he apparently divides his time between a search for the "one-germ-seed" and a pursuit of newspaper exploitation. For several years Mr. Palmer has drawn a salary of $10,000; his associate, Mr. C. C. Hamlin, is even a higher priced man, his salary having been $15,000. Mr. Palmer's chief activities have apparently been in securing wide circulation for his sugar ideas at public expense. Three years ago he wrote an elaborately illustrated pamphlet on "Sugar at a Glance"— a complete treatment of the subject from the beet sugar side. Mr. Palmer succeeded in having this printed as a Senate document; he even made numerous alterations in the copy as it was passing through the press. He sent 320,000 copies through the mails at government expense — thereby saving $3,200 in postage. Mr. Palmer has testified that obliging Senators and Congressmen had made many other of his lucubrations public documents, and permitted him to use their franking privilege on an extensive scale. Almost 1,771,000 "documents" of this kind, said Mr. Palmer, he had "franked" to all parts of the United States. His associate, Mr. Hamlin, has manufactured public opinion in other ways. He has inspired many petitions to Congressmen and induced public men everywhere to write letters indorsing the Oxnard viewpoint. He attempted to secure control of the Chicago *Inter-Ocean* and use it as an organ of the sugar men. "The influence of the paper," he wrote, "as well as Mr. Hinman's personal influence would be of great value to us. Mr. Hinman's friends are among the strongest men in public life in Washington." Mr. Hamlin, according to his own statements, prepared the sugar paragraphs in the Republican campaign text book of 1912. "The sugar question will be handled subject to our approval," he wrote; "in fact, the matter is being furnished by us." He paid a Washington

correspondent $125 a month to write articles favorable to the sugar cause.

For years the Hawaiian cane sugar growers have maintained offices in Washington for a similar purpose. For the last three years Mr. Sidney Ballou, once a supreme court judge in Honolulu, has served as its head — at a salary of $10,000 a year. Mr. Ballou has specialized on the country press. He is a past-master in the art of "boiler plate." Attentive readers of country weeklies — and small city dailies, for that matter — are frequently struck by the peculiar typographical appearance of certain inside pages. The printing has a splotchy effect; the type used is distinctly different from the rest of the "make-up." The literary matter is of a general character — special articles, an occasional story, an illustration or two, perhaps a humorous department. These pages have no local news; they could be printed with appropriateness in any part of the country. Such matter is technically known as "boiler plate," and "patent insides." Special agencies in the larger cities prepare this literature, set it up, and make stereotype plates which they send to their country subscribers. For $1.50 these small papers thus obtain an entire page of printed matter.

But there is one way they can obtain it for nothing. Interested people, such as the Hawaiian sugar men, prepare boiler plate and send it gratis to any paper that will print it. They deftly work into such articles paragraphs here and there that are intended to help their cause. There will be an elaborate article, for example, on the cost of living — with an explanation that the price of sugar has nothing to do with this increased cost. They will run long interviews with Dr. Wiley and Ex-secretary Wilson of the Department of Agriculture, on the development of the sugar industry. There will be articles on such non-committal subjects as the Panama Canal and Hawaii — invariably, however, certain paragraphs are tucked in, helpful to the cane sugar men. Mr. Ballou also sends mimeograph material which the country press can set up and print itself. *This is known in the* newspaper profession *as "canned editorials."* Sometimes the papers will publish these offerings under a Washington date line, with the accompanying legend, "From our own correspondent." In the main they are impartial discussions of current news; always, however, there is something somewhere about sugar and the need of a higher tariff. In addition, Mr. Ballou sends a daily sugar bulletin to newspapers, Congressmen, Cabinet officers, and the White House. In the last few months he has spent large sums advertising the merits of sugar protection in the Washington press.

These men and their numerous subordinates constitute what is known as the "sugar lobby" in Washington. They make their presence felt upon every Senator and Representative. Being a new Senator, circumstances led them to concentrate their energies upon myself. I was a member of the Finance Committee, which has charge of the tariff bill. The Senators from some of the other sugar states, for example, had already taken a stand against the bill. Above all, if the sugar interests could win over myself and my associate, Mr. Shafroth, they could defeat the tariff bill — the Democratic majority in the Senate being so small.

They began their work in the early days of the Colorado campaign. My position on the sugar issue was well known. I have always taken my stand on the traditional Democratic ground of a tariff for revenue. Thus I have always advocated a low duty, for revenue purposes, on sugar. I have not advocated a protective duty on sugar or anything else. I have expressed my convictions on all possible occasions. There has not been a sugar crisis in the last fifteen years in which I have not taken the deepest interest. All that time sugar has figured largely in Colorado politics. I remember sitting in the Senate gallery in 1902 listening to the debate on the Philippine bill. My old law partner of eighteen years' standing, Senator T. M. Patterson, of Colorado, then made an impassioned speech against admitting Philippine sugar to American ports. Shortly afterward I congratulated him on having made the best protection speech I had ever heard on that subject. In 1908, I opposed the proposition to include in the Democratic

'orm of Colorado a declaration against itting Philippine sugar. On all these sions the sugar lobby has been alert active.

have been much struck with the way ıembership has increased. As far back 376, when the treaty with Hawaii was ɔtiated, you will find that the native ʌers were bitterly opposed to admitting ʌaiian sugar. They were going to 'ruined." Once admitted, Hawaiian .r men joined the combine in its ·ts to keep out everybody else. When admittance of Porto Rican products before Congress, these several interests n set up the cry of "ruination." Once itted, however, Porto Rico growers ʌise joined the lobby that was fighting :r sugar countries. They all opposed proposition in the Payne-Aldrich bill itting 300,000 tons of Philippine sugar . Again they were to be "ruined." ʌ that the Philippine growers have ss to our markets, their representatives ɛ joined their old adversaries against ıing the gates to other countries.

should be remembered that all this ɛ, in spite of the pressure brought to · in my own state, I have stood for a sugar tariff. I made my campaign the Senate last fall largely upon that ɛ. The people elected me knowing my tion; the legislature confirmed their e with the same understanding. My cipal opponent was Mr. Waterman, the ɛral counsel of the Great Western Sugar ıpany; naturally, the sugar interests ɪ up solidly behind him. All these ɔle whose activities I have described — men we know in Washington as the ır lobby — worked hard against me. Truman Palmer's masterpiece, "Sugar Glance" was scattered all over the ɛ — we have since learned at the ex- ɜe of the Government. These things, ever, did not deceive the people of ɔrado. The voters themselves did not ɛve in the high sugar duty; the sugar panies are far from popular; and Mr. ner, Mr. Oxnard, and the rest lost r battle.

owever, the sugar capitalists did not ender gracefully. A few days after election the Denver *Post* sent a reporter with a request that I define my position on sugar. As I had repeatedly defined it in the campaign, the question was an impertinent one. It seemed to imply that I might change now that I had carried the election.

Therefore, I simply told the reporter to read the Democratic platform. The Denver *Post* then "went for" me hard. It printed cartoons, interviews, and editorials — the burden of which was that I was going to Washington with the expressed intention of "destroying Colorado's greatest industry." It threw out hints that "it was not too late for Colorado to repudiate me." What it meant was that the legislature could repudiate the popular choice.

My old friend, Ex-senator Patterson, although not sympathizing with my sugar ideas, supported me loyally in the campaign, and was the first to resent the suggestion that the legislature should betray the popular will. I am convinced that the sugar lobby, led by Mr. Charles Boetcher, of the Great Western company, was back of this campaign.

Once I was elected, the sugar interests tried to tie my hands. One of their plans was to get a resolution passed by the Democratic legislature calling for as high a duty on sugar as possible. This resolution was then withdrawn. It was introduced and passed in modified form the next month. Obviously, I could not be bound by it.

Before I came to Washington the sugar people began to pay me calls. The first was Mr. C. S. Morey, president of the Great Western Sugar Company. He is an old friend and neighbor.

"Now I am not going to make any bones over saying that we didn't want you as Senator," he began. "But you're elected, and why can't we talk this over? We cannot submit to a reduction of more than 25 per cent."

"But you said in the campaign that any reduction at all would ruin you," I reminded him. And then we fell to discussing other aspects of the case. As he expressed a willingness to answer questions, I took the opportunity to extract certain information. Like all the sugar companies

the Great Western is grossly overcapitalized. Their demand that we pay high prices for sugar is merely that we help them pay dividends on large quantities of watered stock, to say nothing of high salaries and other extravagances. Mr. Morey, for example, gets $35,000 a year.

"Is it true, Mr. Morey, that your company cut a melon of $53 a share?"

"Well, we did make some profit," he admitted.

"Then I'm told that when you formed your company you exchanged your stock one for two?"

"Yes, that's so."

"I'm also told that your whole outfit cost less than $15,000,000 and that you issued $25,000,000 capital against it."

He agreed that this was true also.

"Now you've sold your stock at a good price, haven't you?"

"Yes."

We then discussed the prices at which the trust sells its product in Colorado. That is one of the reasons that Colorado consumers believe in a low duty. Although we are a great sugar-producing state, our sugar costs us more than it does the people of Kansas and Nebraska. The trust charges us the Kansas price and then adds to it the amount of the freight rates from Missouri River points. The fact that our sugar has never been outside our own state does not matter. I asked Mr. Morey why he did this.

"Well, if Colorado bought its sugar from New York it would have to pay the freight rate, wouldn't it?"

"It seems to me," I said, "that you sugar people are protected from competition in two ways. The tariff protects you and the railroads do also — and apparently you add the amounts in each case to the price of sugar in Colorado."

My next important caller was Mr. Charles Boetcher. He "wanted to congratulate me," and to "talk things over."

"We're up against it," he said. "We are going to be ruined. You and Shafroth can save us."

The interview, however, did not terminate satisfactorily for Mr. Boetcher. But as soon as I reached Washington the lobby renewed its efforts. My p on the sugar question somewhat ch as a result of developments in Washi I had never advocated free sugar; always stood for a low revenue duty. free sugar — at least free sugar in years — now became the party progr And the party policy naturally b my policy. The new Administration succeed or fail in its tariff bill; I d purpose to wreck it at the outset by l on the sugar schedule. The many v I received did not influence me in th direction. They all came — Mr. O Mr. Ballou, Mr. Palmer, Ex-go Carter of Hawaii, and the represen of Porto Rico. Mr. Oxnard was th solicitous; he called several times. plained to him that I should follo party on this question.

"If the party stands for free s said Mr. Oxnard, "you people will b in Washington debating the matter the snow is flying in November."

All these calls, however, struck somewhat half-hearted and futile; I my visitors did it more as a matter o and tradition, not really expecti accomplish much. They relied upon methods to bring me to terms. The service and the telegraph wires a popular modern methods of lob This cyclone, however, was not e unexpected. In fact I received from friends in Colorado telling m it was on the way. "Accelerato public sentiment were scouring the in the interest of a "public opinion" paign. One company offered a pri the best letter in defense of the Co sugar industry — this letter to be add to Colorado's Senators and Congres Several great Colorado newspapers, cially that of my old friend, Ex-s Patterson, the *Rocky Mountain* opened their batteries against me. employers of labor were circu petitions to be forwarded to me. F everywhere were importuned to writ letters or to send telegrams. Severa respondents inclosed circulars which clear as daylight the mechanism b these communications. For example is a circular which the Great Western

pany, of Longmont, Colo., sent to all
ıployees:

GREAT WESTERN SUGAR COMPANY,
Longmont Factory.
LONGMONT, COLO., May 12, 1913.

HE EMPLOYEES OF THE LONGMONT FACTORY:

ıu have heard so much of the tariff bill and
robable effect on our industry that many
ıu think, no doubt, that it is only a scare
hat the Sugar Company will not be hurt

ant to say to each one of you in all earnest-
that it is a very serious proposition to each
very employee of the Great Western Sugar
pany.

the present bill, as it has been passed by
louse of Representatives, should be passed
ıe United States Senate, which it has every
ce of being, we would not be able to pay
than $4.50 per ton for beets, if that much,
you all know that the acreage grown for
per ton will be so small that not more
two or three of our nine factories could
perated, and you all know also that idle
ries mean idle men.

employees of the company, interested in
ing the factories in operation, will you not
one write a letter to the Hon. Charles S.
nas, United States Senate, and the Hon.
F. Shafroth, United States Senate,
ıington, D. C., asking that they use their
ence to have the "Free-sugar-in-three-
" clause eliminated in the tariff bill?

ur letter will have just as much influence
those gentlemen as any letter they will
ve, and we would ask that you show your
est in the state at large as well as the
any you are working for by doing this,
ing the head of your department when you
written this letter. If you are a Democrat
will so state in your letter, it will carry
more weight with the gentlemen, as I do
think any Democrat in Colorado antici-
l any such sweeping reduction as is con-
lated in this bill.

Very truly yours,
N. R. MCCREERY,
Manager.

ıe following form may be used to suggest
:

e prefer that a letter be written in your
words, but if necessary you may copy this

: sure to send two letters. One to Senator
. Thomas and one to Senator John F.
roth. A third letter to Hon. Woodrow
on, President of the United States, Wash-
ington, D. C., will do a lot of good. If you are a Democrat, tell them so. It will carry more weight.

Here follows the model letter the employees were asked to imitate:

Hon. _____
United States Senate,
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR:

The undersigned respectfully protest against any law being passed that will do away with the duty on sugar. We believe that free sugar will mean the closing of many, if not all, the sugar factories in the state and the throwing out of employment of hundreds of factory employees as well as the thousands employed in the beet fields. This will mean decreased values of land and city property.

We respectfully ask your consideration of the thousands of farmers and working men in Colorado who will be hurt by such action.

Many of these people who are now making vigorous protest against this reduction supported you in the election, feeling themselves secure in your promise that you would not harm legitimate industry and which pledge cannot be faithfully fulfilled if you destroy one of Colorado's greatest industries by the passage of a bill calling for free sugar.

Yours very truly

_____

Especially significant, I think, are the words which I — not Mr. McCreery — have italicized. Each employee was directed to notify the head of his department when he had written the letter. Any man who did not so notify his boss could, therefore, be put down as not having obeyed instructions. This, of course, is a particularly gross form of intimidation; and yet these letters, forced out of dependent workmen by what was virtually a threat, the Senators were expected to accept as representations of public sentiment.

Judging from my mail the employees of the sugar factories took the hint. As an evidence of their industry I have a mass of several thousand letters and telegrams — either in the form or the spirit of the copy set for them by the employers. All other sugar factory towns evidently followed the example of Longmont. Between the lines of this correspondence I think I can detect the influence of the traveling publicity expert. For example, one day I received a large

batch of letters and telegrams from a particular town. Next day I received another batch from another town. Next day there arrived a consignment from still another place. What interests me is that every day nearly all my correspondence evidently emanated from the same place and that this place changed from day to day. Am I wrong in concluding that an industrious sugar agent is proceeding from town to town? That he manufactures public sentiment against me in one place and then passes on to a new field? Moreover, these communications reveal that in many communities one man has written them all, although different names are signed. This universal writer has hardly taken the trouble to hide his tracks. He sticks out everywhere. In the vast majority of cases, the phraseology is identical. For example, on May 12th, I received a dozen telegrams from Julesburg, Colo., as follows:

We urge you to vote for an open debate in the Senate on the sugar tariff — Colorado's industries are at least entitled to be heard.

If the twelve men who signed these telegrams sent them spontaneously, isn't it something of a miracle that all twelve should have written them in identically the same words? Moreover, all these telegrams were addressed to Charles "H." Thomas — whereas my middle initial is "S." How amazing that all twelve men should have made the same mistake in my name! Either one man wrote all twelve messages or we have here a sensational instance of mental telepathy. However, I have some direct evidence upon this point. On May 1st, I received this telegram from a town in Colorado:

Senator C. S. THOMAS,
Washington, D. C.

A large majority of the people in this vicinity desire your support in protecting the beet sugar industry.

JOHN JONES.

A few days later I received this letter from Mr. Jones (the name, of course, is not the real name — it might embarrass the writer should I make it public):

My dear Senator Thomas:

My personal views on the sugar question are *similar to your own.* . . . The message was sent upon the request of————, Cl of the County Central Committee (Dem who is also an employee of the Americ Sugar Company, who, I suppose, paid message.

This matter was taken up with me by over the long distance and I authori to send the message over my signat however, did not dictate the message.

Very respectfully
JOHN J

The sugar interests, however, limit their activities to stirring up i uals. Their favorite plan was to g influential institutions — banks, in companies, chambers of commerc mercial clubs, real estate exchange ing houses, trust companies, milli elevator companies, and hotels. times the "accelerators" could wo these institutions down to indi Thus the Denver Clearing Hou notices to local banks to join in the As a matter of fact the sugar co deposit with or control a num banks in Denver, Pueblo, Colorado S Durango, Longmont, and other whose coöperation was a matter of These banks in turn could enl activities of their customers — es their borrowers. One day I recei telegrams from institutions of th — all which bore traces of an id origin. Long petitions from the sources also found their way to W ton. Sometimes the organization s them had the flimsiest kind of an exi For example, I received this te from Grand Junction:

SENATOR CHARLES S. THOMAS,
Senate Building,
Washington, D. C.

The Resolution which the Mesa C Business Association presented in Co against the three-year clause in your schedule is an absolute fake. The organi has not been in existence for three years a used to secure unfair and unwarranted e sion. The people here in the Grand Ju chamber of commerce refuse to take any on the resolution. The people of w Colorado showed by their vote that the revision downward on sugar and wool a behind you in your stand for the Adminis measure.

GRAND JUNCTION, COLO., May 27th

all this I had one consolation, and it a great one. I received almost as communications approving my course did disapproving it. I could almost by looking at a letter, whether it for or against. A neatly typewritten ment on a formidable letter-head lly meant harsh criticism; a roughly en letter — or a hastily pencilled l card — meant friendly approbation. ther words, while the large business took a stand against me, the ordinary n placed himself on my side. The factories opposed free sugar; the rado sugar grower and consumer favored it. What I especially liked was that those approving letters were spontaneous — not "worked up." The only criticism against the other kind is that they were not spontaneous. No legislator has any grievance against a constituent who writes disapproving his course; it is his right; and we welcome such correspondence. All that we insist upon is that the letters be sincere — not promoted and sometimes written and signed by interested persons. This practice is really a great national evil — the last weapon in the arsenal of selfish people who seek to control legislation for their own ends.

TEN MILLIONS FOR GOOD WORKS

AT THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION IS DOING TO DEVELOP THE NEW SCIENCE OF PHILANTHROPY BY EXPERT INVESTIGATIONS AND BY SPREADING THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE BEST METHODS THROUGH AN ORIGINAL AND EFFECTIVE SYSTEM OF PUBLICITY

BY

FRANK MARSHALL WHITE

ONE day last July I called upon Dr. Hastings H. Hart, the director of the Department of Child Helping of the Russell Sage Foundation. As I red his office he was looking over a pile pewritten sheets nearly three inches that had been handed to him by a who left as I came in. This was a y of the Pennsylvania child helping cies and institutions by the Russell Foundation, aided by the Pennsyla State Conference of Charities, under direction of Dr. W. H. Slingerland. Slingerland had just left. His report red a comprehensive investigation of separate agencies; it is to be used in a gramme for state betterment by Pennania. At work on a similar report on litions in Maryland was Miss Florence attimore, associate director of the Dement of Child Helping. Although no rt has yet been made of this investion, it has already resulted in securing w superintendent and the *reorganiza*tion of one institution in the state (no word of which has reached the newspapers), and in negotiations that were then pending to place a private institution under state control.

At the time of this visit Dr. Hart had an agent in Vermont — a state he describes as not rich or socially progressive, that is waking up to its backwardness — studying its almshouses, jails, and orphan and juvenile asylums. He had just assigned another agent to investigate the institutions for children in the state of Washington, which is expecting a great increase of population on the opening of the Panama Canal and is making intelligent preparation for it. On his desk was another of the Foundation's recently completed reports that involved the study of the entire child-helping system of California and the investigation of 76 institutions and 8 societies. Just finished was a complete, illustrated report, that will soon be published, of everything that is being done in the United States for crippled children. In one week Dr

Hart had received visits by appointment from three architects who had received commissions to draw plans for institutions for children. One of these architects was from Los Angeles and the other two from Cincinnati. Dr. Hart took them to see four model institutions, where they met the men who could give them exactly the information they desired. Without the assistance of the Foundation these architects would have required weeks to ascertain what Dr. Hart was able to put them in the way of learning in as many days — which is a part of his routine.

Probably few people realize that charitable homes for children are in need of any except pecuniary assistance. The work of the Department of Child Helping, however, has shown with startling clearness that such institutions do need the help of a central, impartial, and well-equipped bureau, qualified to give advice and instruction and to conduct investigations. For example, an investigation by the Foundation of infant mortality brought to light the fact that, in the case of many of these charitable institutions, committing a child to their care meant to condemn it to death. In one of these institutions 8 children of every 9 died within a year. In another, 57 were received and 54 of them died before 12 months were up.

Shortly before my visit Dr. Hart had received a letter asking for up-to-date information with regard to institutions for, and the care of, children, from the Loyal Order of Moose, a fraternal organization with a membership of 500,000, every one of whom is to pay one dollar a year for the care of its orphans and children of neglected education, for whom it is establishing a school on 1,300 acres of land in Aurora, Ill. About the same time, among a score of other letters Dr. Hart was sending out in one day, was one in response to a similar request from Mr. D. K. Clink, of Chicago, promoter of the National Commercial Travelers' Orphans' Home and School. As this letter is typical of the varied information sent out from the different divisions of the Foundation, indicating as it does mastery of the subject under discussion, it seems worth while to give part of its contents:

There are about 45,000 t
belonging to traveling men's a
the United States. In that ca
have about 1,000 deaths yearly.
left two children unable to prov
selves, that would mean 2,000 a y

In the whole United States th
112 children in orphan asylu
hundred thousand people. If
men with their families number
that rate you would have 2,000
orphanages; but out of these th
it is fair to expect that there woul
than one half as many children se
ages as among the poor. That w
the outside about 1,000 children.

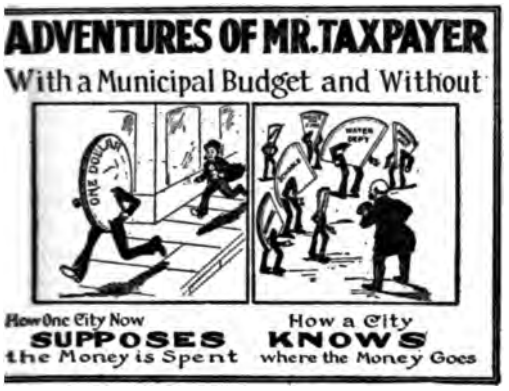
The cost of suitable buildings a
for orphanages these days is $1,0
per bed. To build for 1,000 ch
cost from $1,000,000 to $1,5
maintenance of children in orphan a
from $150 to $250 yearly per
children at $250 each would cos
year.

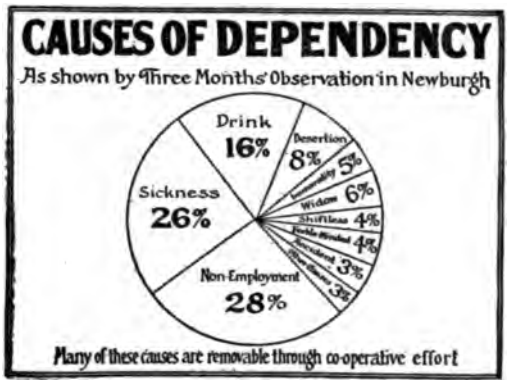
Your committee will want to c
carefully the question whether t
to establish a national institution
whole country. There are some
jections to this plan, for the rea
most cases, it means a permanent
the children from their mothers. T
the importance of establishing prop
for the admission of children tosuch
There should be careful study t
whether the children should be tak
mothers.

If your committee should deci
there will be a long line of que
determined, including the location,
of buying a site or accepting it
the size of the institution, the build
the adoption of the cottage or con
the question of schools, industri
etc., and the questions of govern
administration.

Any service that may be ren
office will be rendered without
have no axe to grind. Our onl
be to help you get what you are

How long would it be likely
average man unfamiliar with
to secure the information tha
was able to put on one sheet
And experts in all the other
the Foundation are renderin
kind of service when called upo
women engaged in work for soc
ment. The Foundation's pub





ONE WAY TO MAKE STATISTICS INTERESTING

THESE EXHIBITS FROM THE SURVEY OF NEWBURGH, N. Y., ARE EXAMPLES OF A NEW ART OF PUBLICITY BY WHICH THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION ATTRACTS PUBLIC ATTENTION TO THE SIGNIFICANCE OF DRY FACTS

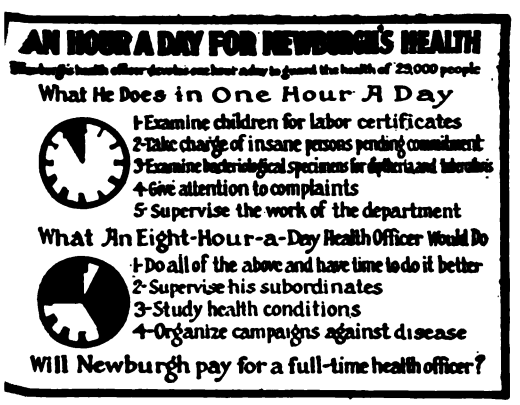
hild helping comprises more than a score f books and pamphlets.

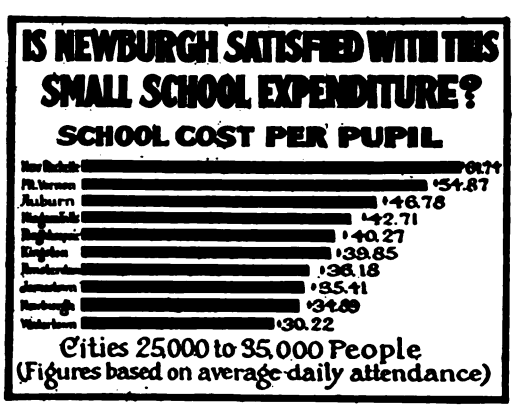
These activities of the Department of hild Helping are typical of the spirit and urpose and method of all ten depart- ents whose coördinate work makes up he achievement of the Foundation.

The Russell Sage Foundation grew out f conversations between Mrs. Sage and Ir. Robert W. and Mr. Henry de Forest. hese men were her legal advisers as well s her personal friends. They both have iven liberally of money, time, and hought to philanthropic work, and Mrs. age was especially fortunate in having heir advice in her search for a proper utlet for her philanthropic purposes.

The purpose of the Foundation is "the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States," by any means which shall seem expedient, including research, publication, education, and the establishment, aid, or maintenance of charitable or benevolent activities or institutions. In her letter of April 19, 1907, which is her deed of gift, Mrs. Sage further defines the scope of the Foundation, and makes plain the wide vision of its usefulness that lay behind her gift. In that letter she wrote:

> The scope of the Foundation is not only national but it is broad. It should, however, preferably not undertake to do that which is now being done or is likely to be effectively done by other individuals or other agencies. It should be its aim to take up the larger and more difficult problems, and to take them up so far as possible in such a manner as to secure coöperation and aid in their solution. In some instances it may wisely initiate movements,



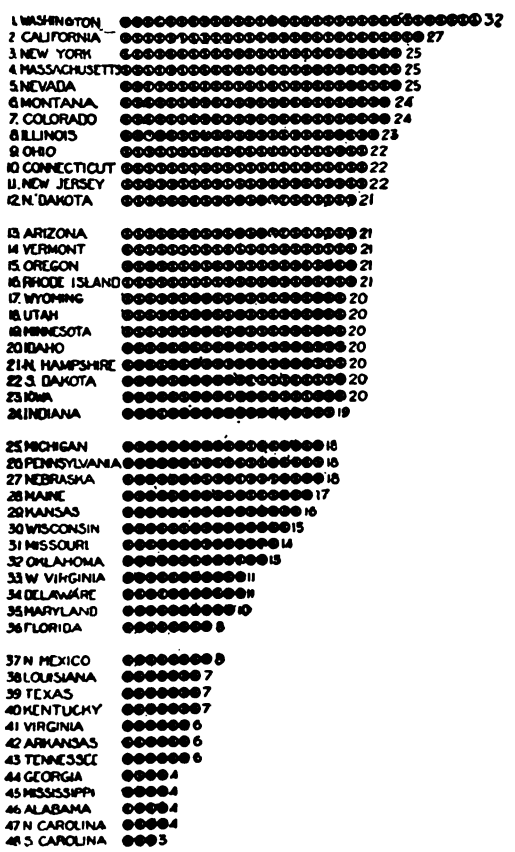


BETTER THAN CAMPAIGN SPEECHES TO INFLUENCE PUBLIC OPINION

THE APPEAL TO THE EYE IS PRACTICALLY INSTANTANEOUS AND FOR THAT REASON MORE EFFECTIVE THAN *EITHER* SPOKEN OR WRITTEN ARGUMENT

in the expectation of having them maintain themselves unaided after once being started. In other instances it may start movements with the expectation of carrying them on itself.

The trustees at one of their earliest meetings decided not to attempt to relieve individual or family need, partly because the trustees did not wish to free the philanthropic public of its responsibilities toward unfortunate members, and partly



A GRAPHIC COMPARISON

HOW THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION SHOWED THE YEARLY EXPENDITURE PER CHILD OF SCHOOL AGE IN THE SEVERAL STATES

because they believed that the Foundation could accomplish more by attacking evil at its root and attempting to remove the causes of poverty, pain, and suffering, than in undertaking mere individual relief. It was decided that grants should not be made to colleges and universities, because *these institutions* were already provided *for to a certain* extent by Mr. Rockefeller's General Education Board, and, ally, through pensions, by Mr. C Foundation for the Advancement ing. Aid to churches of all denor was also eliminated from the pu the Foundation.

Since, in the summer of 1907, its work in two small offices in N the Foundation has developed institution that this fall will o own 9-story building. It has t divisions, each with a department staff of workers — apart from it work in coöperation with a score altruistic movements. It is in tc 250 charity organization socie libraries, 900 mayors, and 80 superintendents in the forty-eigl it distributes between 200,000 an pieces of its own printed matter an average of a thousand every day in the year.

The ten direct agencies of the tion, under the general directio John M. Glenn, are the Charity C tion Department, the Department Helping, the Department of Re the Division of Education, the of Remedial Loans, the Comm Women's Work, the Department veys and Exhibits, the Division istics, the Southern Highland and the Library. As is entirely in the scheme of an institution permanent results, a great part work of the Foundation is amon ren — the men and women of t generation.

As interesting and as important of the other work of the Found that of the Charity Organization ment, directed by Miss Mary E mond. This department studies t of charity organizations in all the country, digests the inform obtains, and acts as a clearing-h this information with the purpose o the standards of charity work eve it can. It seeks to eliminate dup of expenditure and time. It make studies in field work on its own acc publishes its findings on them. I a special effort to get the best worl the fields where they can be mos

abors and purposes and methods are y at the root of all the work of the r departments of the Foundation. It aching thousands of people that the es of dependency are preventable ills, now they may be prevented.

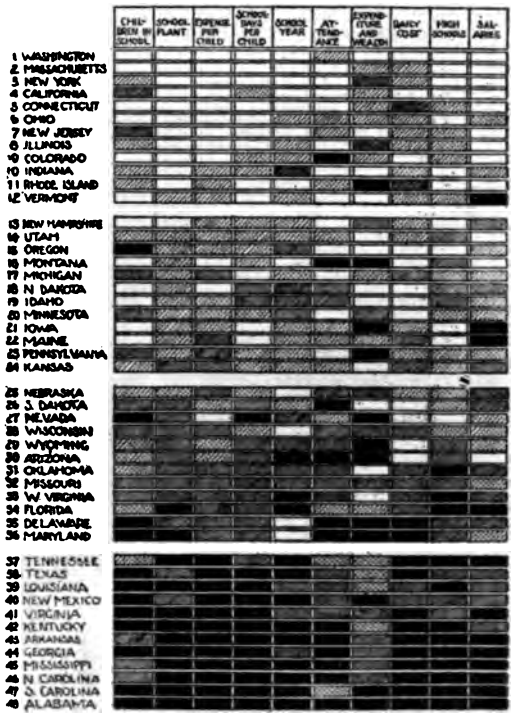
ıe Department of Surveys and Ex- s is doing some of the most interesting suggestive work of recent years to ; about better conditions in American . For example: A citizen stopped e one of the big stores in the main t of Newburgh, N. Y., one morning ong ago, to gaze, with a crowd that ted the sidewalk, into the show window h, divested of its customary display of handise, was hung with perhaps charts, diagrams, and cartoons.

t's the exhibit of the 'survey' the ell Sage Foundation has been mak- and it ought not to be allowed," nantly responded a conservative resi- in the throng to a query of the other. t look at that chart with the dots ing the comparative number of ches and school houses to the saloons! by Jove, that must be an infernal lie Newburgh's typhoid death rate is that of the whole state!"

t might be a good idea to clean up water supply, and improve our school ment — to remedy our deficiencies rally," suggested a more progressive ber of the crowd.

t an immediate outcome of the burgh survey was that the mayor, was at first very angry over the mak- ublic of the city's typhoid death rate, ed an investigation of the water shed. result plans are under way that will ntee an uncontaminated water supply hich means the potential saving of lives. This is one lesson of the y: For several years the New York Health Department in its annual ts has been calling attention to New- n's high typhoid death rate, but this ition did not reach the notice of the le of the city. When the present h physician took office, he called tion to the matter through the press, was promptly suppressed by property rs who feared that he would "hurt ity." When, however, the average citizen learned that his own life and the lives of his family were in constant danger from the water supply, action was not delayed.

In thirty-two other cities of the United States where, during the last five years, other agencies than the Russell Sage Foundation have made social surveys — some of them covering as many phases of civic life as possible, and others of more limited or more extensive scope —

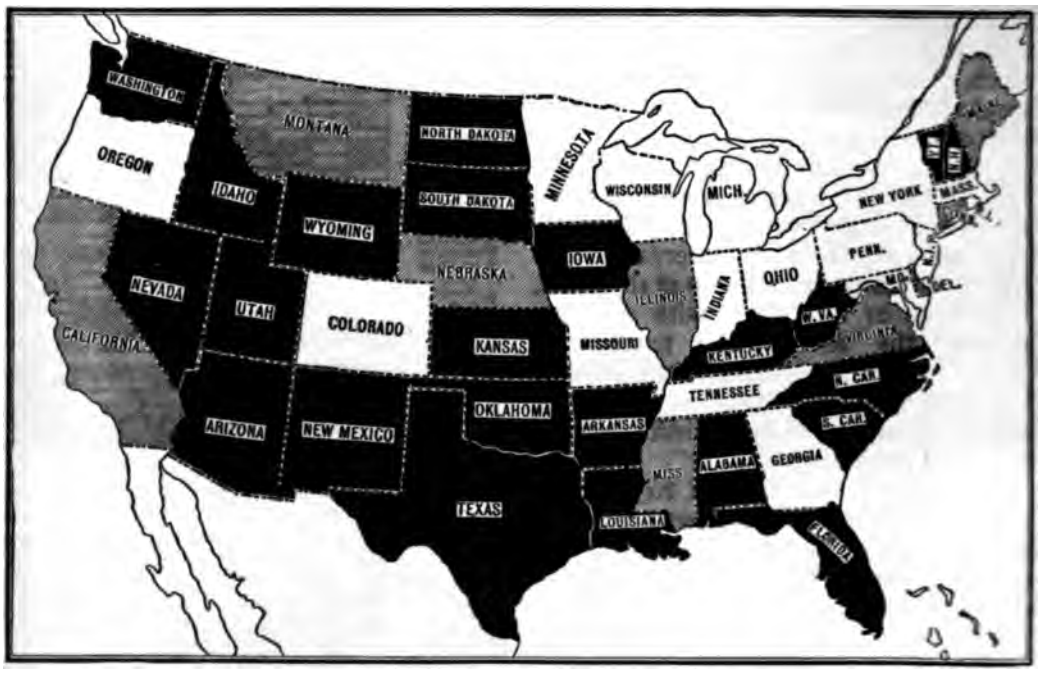


"WHITE GOOD; BLACK BAD"

HOW THE STATES RANK EDUCATIONALLY UNDER TEN TESTS OF EFFICIENCY. A STRIKING EXAMPLE OF THE GRAPHIC METHOD OF PRESENTING STATISTICAL INFORMATION INTELLIGIBLY AND INTERESTINGLY

there have been scenes similar to that outlined in the little city on the Hudson; in a number of cities throughout the country where surveys are in progress, such scenes are occurring now, and in 67 cities in 21 states, whence requests for advice and assistance have been received by the Foundation, such scenes may be expected to occur in the near future. Newburgh's experience is briefly presented as illustrative of the survey idea, and of a conspicuous part of the diversified work

of the Russell Sage Foundation, because the survey has only recently been completed there, and conditions are typical of those elsewhere. In every city where surveys have been made there have been found the same two groups, the conservative element that would suppress knowledge of weakness, and the progressive element that is willing to face the truth as a means of sound civic advance. The result is invariably that publicity forces improvement. The Foundation workers, by the local institutions and had broad local backing, its local committee being appointed from the Chamber of Commerce, the Merchants' Association, the Central Labor Union, the Ministerial Association, and the Associated Charities. This local aid and this local initiative are regarded by the officers of the Foundation as indispensable elements in the work. Results are permanent only when they spring from the interest of the people who are most concerned.



THE DARK DISTRICTS OF EXTORTION

STATES IN WHITE HAVE SPECIALLY DRAFTED LAWS THAT REGULATE THE BUSINESS OF SMALL MONEY-LENDING AND THAT PERMIT IT TO BE DONE ON A DECENT BASIS BY REMEDIAL LOAN SOCIETIES. STATES IN TINT HAVE LAWS THAT ARE A STEP IN THIS DIRECTION BUT THAT NEED IMPROVEMENT REALLY TO BE USEFUL. STATES IN BLACK ARE IN GREAT NEED OF CONSTRUCTIVE LEGISLATION

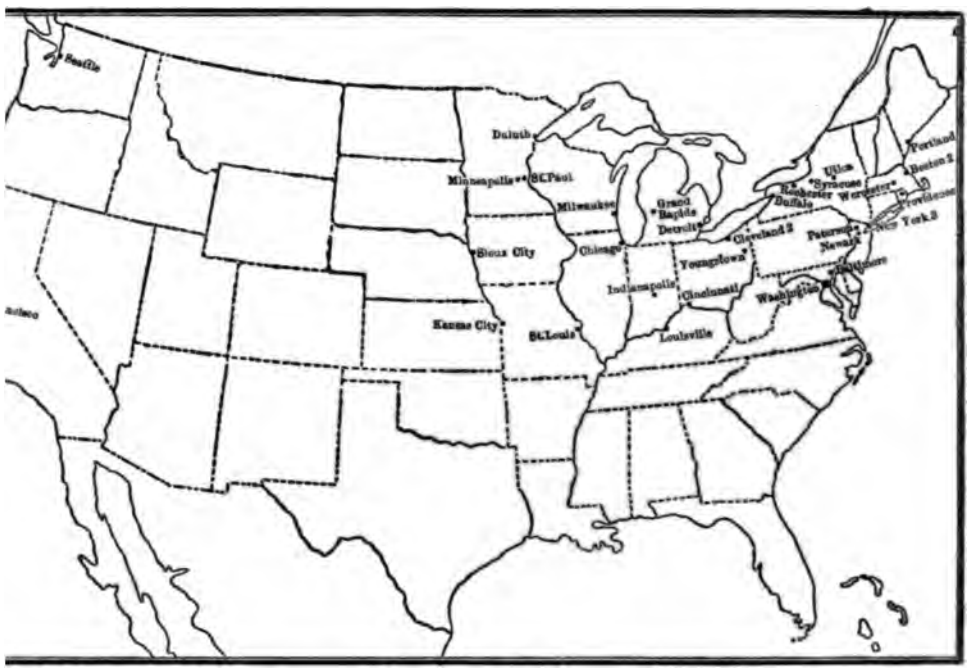
way, never claim such improvements as the result of their efforts; they say that the improvements followed the survey.

The social survey is in the same field with what has come to be known as municipal research, the distinction between the two movements in practice being that one is focussed on governmental operations, and the other covers also phenomena growing out of the everyday life of the people. The initiative of the Newburgh survey — as in all surveys of the Foundation — came *from local citizens.* It was financed by

The pamphlet containing the report of the Newburgh survey, each of its hundred pages crowded with concrete suggestion, without one instance of personal or bitter criticism, indicates that the undertaking was wholly constructive. The needs of Newburgh are summarized thus: reorganization of financial methods; a housing code; better financed and better organized health work; more emphasis upon reformation, less upon humiliation of prisoners; the employment of a paid probation officer; more investigation and further coöpera-

n charity work, with emphasis upon ntion of dependency and family ilitation rather than the giving of permanent public playgrounds and tion use of school buildings; better ement of child labor laws and a understanding of the wage problem, physical conditions in older schools, provision for securing teaching ncy; provision for abnormal children ıore attention to physical training.
: Department of Recreation origi-

Careful playground work on a properly organized, supervised, and directed playground, says Mr. Hanmer, is as educational as going to school. When the Foundation began to push the playground movement five years ago, there were 90 American cities which had playgrounds; to-day there are more than 800. And here is illustrated the quiet method of the Foundation work, for if one were to look for a chain of Russell Sage playgrounds in the manner of Carnegie libraries, the



WHERE BORROWERS OF LITTLE MONEY NEED NOT SUBMIT TO EXTORTION

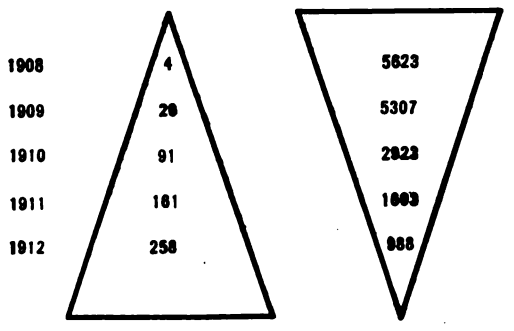
THESE CITIES ARE REMEDIAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS THAT COÖPERATE WITH THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUN- IN ITS WORK TO EXTEND FINANCIAL CREDIT AT REASONABLE RATES TO SMALL BORROWERS ON THE TY OF PLEDGE OR MORTGAGE ON PERSONAL PROPERTY

in an undertaking entered into by oundation, under the name of the rounds Extension Committee, to r the establishment of children's rounds and to give temporary aid to has now become a national move- — the Playground and Recreation iation of America. One of the leadases of the work of this department, is in charge of Mr. Lee F. Hanmer, he arousing of public sentiment to the id that playgrounds and breathing for children shall be established ghout the cities of the United States.

search would be in vain. However, the Foundation has investigated playgrounds and recreation undertakings in every part of the United States and also in Europe; and, this information having been accumulated and digested, the resulting conclusions are put at the service of any individuals or committees that desire to know the best way, under local conditions, to start and conduct any form of public recreation. And this information is kept up to date, new pamphlets and books on the subject being issued whenever new ideas or new accomplishment make their

publication worth while. In all this work the Department, although not giving financial assistance, is coöperating with the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

Another division of the work of the Department of Recreation, to which Mr. Clarence Arthur Perry, the assistant director, devotes a great deal of attention, is the development of the idea of using the schoolhouse as a social centre for adults as well as children. Mr. Perry's books and pamphlets on the wider use of the school plant (buildings, equipment, and yards) are the result of five years of study of the subject, and they describe all the activities and how they are carried on after regular school hours, from evening



RESULTS OF A "SANE FOURTH"

AS THE NUMBER OF CITIES THAT CELEBRATE SANELY INCREASES THE NUMBER OF INJURIES DECREASES. THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION GAVE THIS MOVEMENT DIRECTION AND NATION-WIDE PUBLICITY

schools to social centres, in the public school buildings of the entire country.

A movement that has been greatly extended by this department of the Foundation is the "Safe and Sane Fourth." The campaign was begun in 1909, the number killed and wounded in Fourth of July celebrations in American cities the preceding year being 5,623. Last year the killed and wounded numbered only 988, a reduction of 4,635. The Department of Recreation writes directly to any one asking for information in any of its divisions, and gives advice suitable to particular cases in different parts of the country. Representatives of the Foundation make personal visits whenever they *can to cities, towns,* and villages where the playground or social centre situation may be under discussion, and give talks and lectures and general assistance in perfecting the scheme best adapted to local resources and needs.

The sister division of the Department of Recreation is the Division of Education. This division, under the direction of Dr. Leonard P. Ayres, serves as a laboratory for the study of educational problems. Its fundamental purpose is to discover, formulate, and apply methods for illuminating and clarifying the questions which confront workers in the field of public education. The division takes the difficulties which confront the school superintendent and brings to bear upon them its fund of special knowledge, the educational experience and scientific training of its workers, the powerful organization of its office machinery, and the solid financial backing of the Foundation. Questions too large to be handled by one city or one superintendent are taken over by the division as its contribution toward the progress of education in the United States. A few of the special problems studied by the Division of Education during the last few years are the medical inspection of school children, open-air schools, the backward child, the measurement of educational processes and products, psychological tests in vocational guidance, the effect of promotion rates on school efficiency, and a comparative study of public schools systems in the forty-eight states. The division aims not only to discover facts, but to bring them to the attention of educators in such a form and manner that they can neither be misunderstood nor disregarded.

Both the Department of Recreation and the Division of Education lend lantern slides illustrative of the various phases of their work. They also publish bulletins from time to time, in which the results of their studies are reported.

In the Division of Remedial Loans, conducted by Mr. Arthur H. Ham, concrete results are perhaps more definitely shown than in any other department of the Foundation. When, in 1909, Mr. Ham began his crusade against the extortionate lenders on salaries and chattel

mortgages, they were at the height of their prosperity. It was estimated that in every city of the United States of more than 25,000 population, containing any appreciable number of citizens dependent on fixed salaries or wages, there were loan sharks in the proportion of one to 5,000, and that one in every 20 voters was discounting two days' labor for the price of one. To-day in 28 of the states the people have risen against the sharks and are driving them out of business by legislation that permits the small loans traffic to be done on a reputable basis. In 1909 the statute books of only nine states contained laws tending to restrain the rapacity of the loan sharks; to-day in 23 states their teeth are being drawn, and in five more states legislation is in progress for similar results. The rapidity with which the movement for driving out the extortioner has grown throughout the country may not be better shown than in the records of the National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, which was organized in 1909. At that time semi-philanthropic societies for the assistance of the small borrower existed in 12 cities of the United States. Since the organization of the National Federation it has been joined by 17 new remedial loan societies, and 8 more such societies are in process of formation The semi-philanthropic Chattel Loan Society of New York, that was organized last year and has already demonstrated the economic proposition that money may be lent at a profit on household goods at 2 per cent. a month plus a small investigation fee, is one of the results of the work of the Division of Remedial Loans.

The province of the Committee on Women's Work, of which Miss Mary A. Van Kleeck is secretary, is the gathering of data about the conditions of the employment of women in New York City, and to make the facts known as a basis for sound, constructive legislation. Miss Van Kleeck has already published intensive studies of the book-binding and artificial flower making trades.

The Southern Highland Division, whose headquarters are at Asheville, N. C., and whose secretary is Mr. John C. Campbell, has made careful studies of social and living conditions in the Southern mountains. It aims to promote coöperation and coördination among all the forces of advance in the mountain country. It aims also to stimulate in other parts of the United States intelligent and sympathetic understanding of the mountain people, their problems, and their needs. The division began its studies in 1908 and has carried them steadily forward. Extensive journeys have been made in the mountains in Tennessee, Kentucky, the Virginias, the Carolinas, and Georgia, the more remote sections being reached by horseback or wagon. Interviews have been held with teachers, physicians, ministers, social workers, farmers, and other mountain citizens, and the people and their life have been sympathetically studied at first hand. Conferences have been held with representatives of private organizations and public departments that do mountain work, not only to become familiar with what is being done but to promote cooperation and harmonious effort. Special studies have been made of the racial characteristics of the mountaineers, problems of sanitation and health, the influence and needs of schools and churches, and the best ways of developing industrial and agricultural resources.

The Russell Sage Foundation Library is one of the best working collections on sociological subjects in the country. It contains about 10,000 volumes and 15,000 pamphlets. Special classes of books in which the Library is particularly strong are city problems, charities and correction, housing, recreation, health and disease, vocational training, vagrancy, church socialization, and labor conditions, with special collections on child labor and women in industry. Serial publications received include reports of federal, state, and local institutions and associations, and are in many cases complete from the beginning. There are especially valuable files of the proceedings of national and international conferences. The library receives 250 periodicals, and articles of value on social subjects are clipped from the popular magazines, filed, and indexed

The Library aims to serve the staff of Russell Sage Foundation, the student of

the New York School of Philanthropy, and other social workers and investigators. However, it is not content simply with those who seek its help but, like a business house, endeavors to create demands for its services from new sources.

The Foundation is also a large publisher of authoritative books on social problems, written from the original researches of its staff and of other experts commissioned by it. These publications are among the foremost agencies in the Foundation's work to give the widest publicity to the most authentic data for the use of students of social questions.

Among many other movements in which the Foundation has taken an indirect part — that is, wholly or in part outside of its own departments — may be mentioned campaigns for the study and prevention of tuberculosis, of blindness, and of infant mortality, and movements for child welfare, better schools, prevention of child labor, "placing out" dependent children in homes, better organization of juvenile court work, higher standards of probation, children's school gardens, open-air schools, better housing, town and city planning, more efficient hospitals, better facilities for public recreation, and better labor laws. The Foundation aided the reorganization of the American Red Cross and the development of better methods of relief work in great disasters. It has aided schools of philanthropy in New York, Chicago, Boston, and St. Louis to conduct departments of social research and give more thorough training to those preparing for social work. It has aided financially in the preparations for such important conferences at Washington as the International Tuberculosis Congress in 1908, the White House Conference on Dependent Children in 1909, the International Prison Congress in 1910, and the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography last year.

Through these movements, through the development of the exhibit idea as a means of reaching the people, through publicity bureaus and newspapers, through *The Survey* magazine, through its own publications, and in a hundred other ways, the Foundation has for six years been bringing social facts to the attention of the people of the whole country, awakening intelligent interest and enlightened opinion, and leading to serious study, discussion, and effort toward national improvement.

SAVING THAT MILLION A DAY

HOW THE RAILROADS SAVE MONEY—FEWER CARS AND BETTER SERVICE ON THE BURLINGTON

BY

C. M. KEYS

A FEW years ago, in the middle of a controversy over rates, Mr. Louis Brandeis quoted a loose statement made by an efficiency engineer to the effect that if the railroads introduced an efficiency method they would save a million dollars a day in expenses. The statement caught the popular fancy and there was no end of talk *about it. When* the Interstate Commerce Commission came to write its opinion about the rate question of that day it dealt rather unkindly with this theory and stated that it could "hardly find that these methods could be introduced into railroad operation to any considerable extent."

If the principles of so-called scientific efficiency are barely applicable in railroad operations, there is another sort of efficiency that has easily and certainly saved a million

rs a day to the railroads of the United
s, and *is* saving it every day.

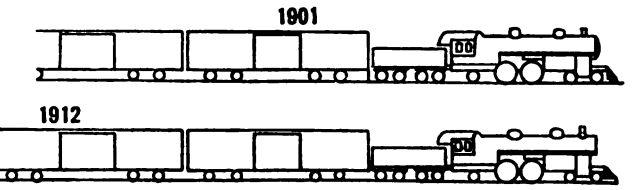
hen Mr. James J. Hill was an active
ad man, he used to carry around in
ocket a little note-book full of figures.
principal use of that note-book was
emonstrate to anybody that came
; that on the Hill roads they prac-
"efficiency." Mr. Hill seldom used
word, but he would talk by the
about the way they had cut down the
nile costs on the Great Northern and
Burlington. "Ton-mile cost" means
actual number of mills that it costs
ove a ton of freight one mile by rail.
y railroad man, when he is talking
t his own operations, has in mind the
ge ton of freight on his own system.
erein, of course, lies a pitfall. The
ge ton of freight on a road like the
awanna, for instance, whose lines are
ys busy hauling anthracite coal down-
is a very different thing from the
ge ton of freight on, say, the Bangor
oostook, which does fairly well with
toes and things like that, but probably
r hauled a full trainload of anthracite
; long and uneventful history. There-
when one comes to talk about
ency — which is merely another name
on-mile cost — it is well not to make
lious comparisons between one railroad
another; for almost everybody that
did it found himself finally talking
nonsense.

ie good railroad will serve as an illus-
on as well as another. In the present
the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy
do very well to show some of the
rtant phases of modern railroad effi-
y; and the writer is willing to confess
the main reason that it is chosen
rather than any other of half a dozen is that its figures happened to come in a convenient form just as this article was written.

The Burlington is a good old railroad serving a good old country, and it has always been run by a good strong staff in both its traffic and operating departments. It is both a trunk line and granger road. A little more than half its mileage consists of branches that produce less than ten per cent. of its traffic. This traffic is very miscellaneous, consisting of almost everything that is handled on the railroads of this country. Yet about thirty-two per cent. of all its traffic is soft coal. It carries more live stock than any other railroad. These facts, the nature of the mileage, and the nature of the traffic, are well to keep in mind when you are studying railroad efficiency.

In 1901, the year in which Mr. Morgan and Mr. Hill captured the Burlington after a picturesque battle with Mr. Harriman, the statistics show that the freight trains on the Burlington traveled 18,397,000 miles in all, carrying freight. In 1912, the freight trains traveled only 16,688,000 miles. The system in the meantime had grown from about 7,700 miles to about 9,000. However, the freight trains in 1912 carried 7,676,000,000 tons of freight one mile, whereas in 1901 the larger number of freight trains carried only 3,871,000,000 tons one mile.

That is "efficiency" in a nutshell. The movement of a ton of freight one mile is the standard unit of freight traffic. The Burlington carried twice as many units in 1912 as it did in 1901 with a considerably smaller number of trains running on the lines. When we have found out how they did it, we will have a fairly

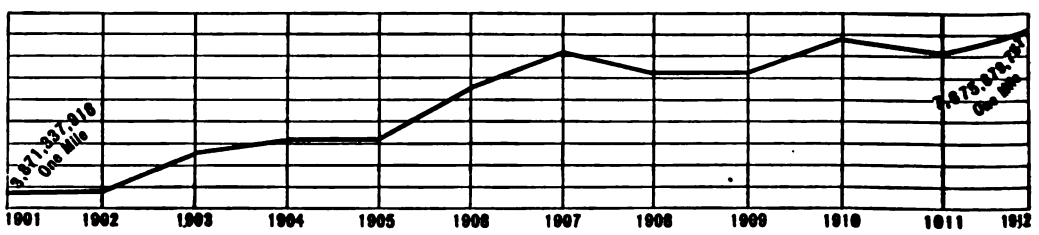


HOW A TRAINLOAD GREW IN ELEVEN YEARS

ING THE INCREASE IN EFFICIENCY OF FREIGHT TRAFFIC ON THE BURLINGTON RAILROAD THAT WAS ACHIEVED BY BIGGER ENGINES, IMPROVED TRACKS, BETTER METHODS OF OPERATION, ETC.

definite view of the methods used to secure real money-saving efficiency on the American railroads.

In a recent issue of the *Railway Age Gazette* a good illustration was cited of one of the more important methods that help toward this result. The Burlington had a line to Centralia, Ill. It wanted to extend this line down to a little town called Herrin in the soft coal field of Illinois. The line from Centralia north, however, was not much of a line for heavy traffic, because it had grades running up as high as sixty feet to the mile. The Burlington cut down the grade all the way from Centralia to Savanna, up in the north end of the state, so that in no place in the approximately 330 miles was there a grade greater than fifteen feet to a mile. By that piece of work they made



WHAT THE FREIGHT TRAINS CARRIED

SHOWING A STEADY INCREASE IN TONNAGE CARRIED ONE MILE, IN SPITE OF THE DECREASE IN TOTAL MILEAGE OF TRAINS; A FEAT IN INTENSIVE TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT

a continuous line from Herrin to St. Paul, 625 miles, without a grade on it greater than fifteen feet to a mile.

The result, when you get the story down in black and white, is obvious enough. The trainload gets heavier. The same engine can do a great deal more work on the same amount of fuel. The same train crew which carried a train forty or fifty miles up the old hill would carry it one hundred miles or more over the reconstructed line. There is a saving all around. That means a reduction in ton-mile cost. It may be taken for granted — or if any one wants to prove it he can do so — that at the same time that the Burlington was reconstructing this division it was doing the same kind of work all over the system.

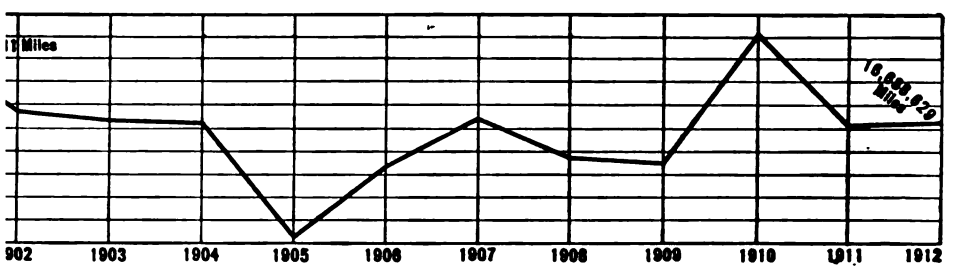
This is a prime element in railroad efficiency. Of course, it is not the only one. When Mr. Hill got the Burlington its heavy standard engine had a "tractive" power of 20,000 pounds. Nowadays, the standard locomotives of a main line have a tractive power of 60,000 pounds. Of course, most of the old engines are still working on the branch lines; but the average power of every locomotive on the road is about forty per cent. higher than the maximum of 1901. This is probably the second element in efficiency as it is practised on the Burlington.

Of course, cars also have increased in size and capacity. They used to have an average load of 12½ tons in every Burlington car. Now they have 18½. This is what they call carload, and if you happen to get hold of a crank on this subject he will write you a book about the methods that are used by all the railroads of the country to make this carload item broad. There are men on every one of the big systems whose life business it is to see that the loading is better every year on the railroad.

It may be significant, however, that on the Burlington the increase has not been great between 1907 and 1912. There are a good many railroad men who think that the limit in size of freight cars and in carload lots has been pretty nearly reached.

From a purely mechanical standpoint, these three elements — better tracks, stronger engines, and bigger cars — are the main elements in the saving of a million a day in transportation expenses. So far as the main railroads of the country are concerned, they are almost universal. Practically all our great railroads in the past twelve years have spent many millions of dollars to make their lines more efficient, have put in service very heavy modern locomotives, and have increased

of their cars. By these methods
ve brought about sweeping reduc-
ı the cost of transportation per
mile, and there is little doubt that
ıethods alone have made possible
ge profits that have been earned
a steady rise in the cost of labor
ecreasing average rate earned by
; freight.
: are, however, many other ele-
On some of the railroads where
y of this brand has been almost a
:mendous efforts on the part of
d officers have supplemented the
mechanical addition to the plant,
e result that on these railroads
y has reached perhaps a higher
han the average throughout the
. Such supervision is common on



HOW FAR THE FREIGHT TRAINS RAN

ETHODS ON THE BURLINGTON HAVE ENABLED IT TO RUN ITS TRAINS LESS MILES AND STILL, AS THE DIAGRAM OPPOSITE SHOWS, CARRY MORE FREIGHT

Hill roads — the Great Northern,
n Pacific, and the Burlington
ystem of supervision is very elab-
nd wonderful. Every day, big
hat show how tonnage moves on
division come to headquarters.
dy of these sheets is the business
he officers. They do not let cars
on the Burlington. There is a
legraphic report of every car that
n in the yard longer than twenty-
urs, and reasons for the delay are
l at headquarters. If there is a
of freight that is supposed to run
dule anywhere on the road, it is
l by telegraph every day, so that
ıeadquarters know exactly where it
has happened to it, how far behind
dule it may be, or how far ahead.
llow every car of time-freight over
ıile of the road.

Therefore, on the Burlington, the freight car in service covers about thirty-two miles a day, on an average. On all the railroads of the country the general average is about twenty-four miles. Considering the diversity of the tonnage moved, and the general character of the traffic on the Burlington, it is probably safe to say that at least half of its advantage over the average of the country in freight movement is due to the careful human supervision over the manner in which they make the cars move.

The object of all this supervision and analysis is to make the freight cars move a little faster on the lines this year than they did last year. At first sight that might not seem to be a very important matter; for freight cars, in the mind of the average man who travels on express trains, are pretty slow anyway, and a few miles more or less would not make much difference. Yet it is one of the most important things in modern life.

In the year 1909, the average freight car moved 313.58 tons of freight one mile every day. In 1912, the work of a freight car was to move 359.83 tons one mile every day. In 1912 there were 2,192,987 freight cars working on the railroads. When you apply the increased day's work to that number of cars, you find that the greater efficiency of the freight car amounted to the same thing as if the railroads had bought and placed in commission about 314,000 new freight cars. If you figure them at an average of $1,000 apiece it means that this increase in efficiency took the place of buying $314,000,000 worth of new cars. You

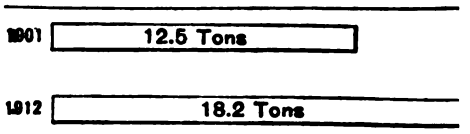
may also find that the actual earnings of the freight service were increased approximately $600,000 a day as a result of this increased efficiency.

Of course, to accomplish this result all elements have contributed. It has been shown that grades have been reduced and tracks made more efficient; that engines are more powerful and better adapted for the particular work they have to do; that cars are larger and loaded much better than they were; and that methods of supervision are much stricter and more thorough than they were a few years ago. It is quite evident that the rebuilding of the road, the purchase of larger engines and cars, and the organization of forces for supervision cost a great deal of money. It is quite impossible even for a railroad statistician to estimate, with any degree of accuracy, just what the net profit is from all this efficiency, but all critics are agreed that the net saving is enormous.

This great gain has been accomplished since the day when Mr. Brandeis startled the business world by his claim that the railroads were wasting a million dollars a day, but there has been an even greater saving over a longer period; for this struggle to reduce ton-mile cost is no new thing. Twenty years ago the American freight car was a very much neglected commercial element. It seemed to wander around the country aimlessly and with little indication of commercial common sense. If a manufacturer wanted six cars he always ordered a dozen. If he wanted his cars on the last of the month, he always asked for them about the first. When he got them they were just as likely as not to stand idle on his siding for weeks at a time. Similarly, when freight came in to the warehouse in carload lots, the shipper let the cars full of freight stand idly on the siding acting as warehouses. Nobody was in a hurry to load or unload.

It is a different story to-day. If you get freight in carload lots you get it out of the cars within twenty-four hours after it arrives in the yard, or you pay a high price for the use of the car. If you ask for half a dozen cars to ship some of *your products*, when they come in on your *siding you know* well that they will go out again within about forty-eight h whether they are loaded or not. The a in your town may be a pretty good fr of yours, but he knows that some p up above him a busy official has a re that these cars were delivered to yo a certain time. He also knows that t cars have got to move within a ce length of time or some awkward ques will be put to him to answer.

Right along the same line is the e of the railroad men to equalize t traffic in both directions on the line. for example, a railroad has a heavy w ward tonnage and very little freight mo eastward, that railroad starts to dev some kind of tonnage that can be lo into its cars when they are coming l over the lines. Of course, sometim cannot be done. You cannot haul t loads of fertilizer down to the eastern of Long Island and load oysters, fish,



WHAT A CAR CARRIED

THE AVERAGE CARRYING CAPACITY OF FREIGHT ON THE BURLINGTON RAILROAD

cabbages into those same cars. You however, load lumber into box cars. same car that takes a miscellaneous of package freight from Chicago Spokane can run on the siding at a Washington mill and pick up en lumber for the Eastern markets to m the trip worth while. In the old day simple an expedient as that one followed, of course; but it was not veloped into a science. Nowadays i That is the difference between Amer railroad methods of twenty years ago of to-day.

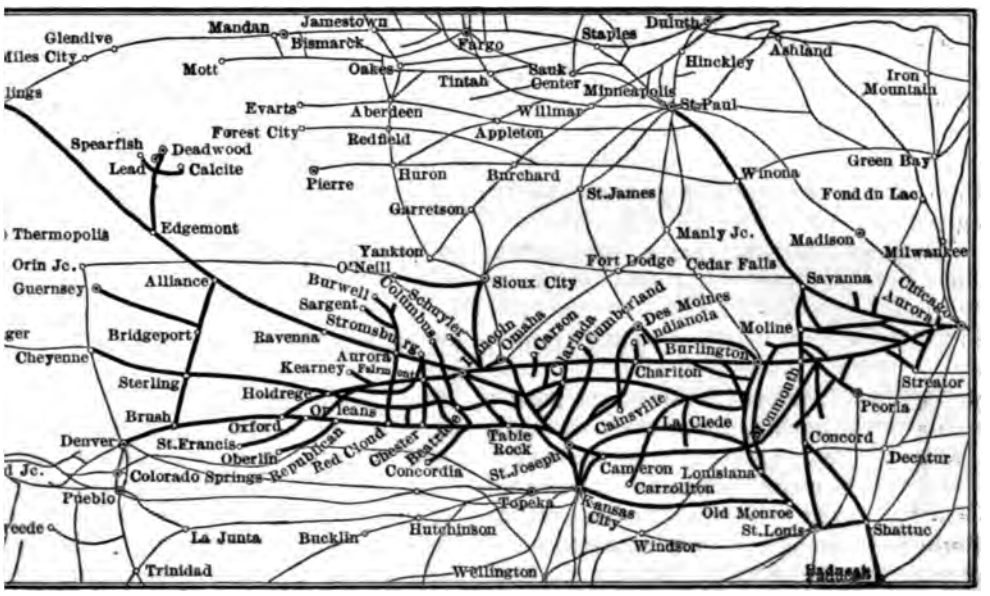
It is the habit of railroad writers critics, if they are not quite sure started a certain radical change in rail methods, to ascribe it to Mr. Jame Hill, and let it go at that. Very lil nine tenths of the great departures w Mr. Hill brought to perfection on Great Northern were practised, mor

by railroad officers of generations
e Mr. Hill, and probably more than
of the rest were really the creations
inior officers whose names are never
l of. Nevertheless, the fact remains
perhaps the most striking illustration
iis scientific development of tonnage
s from the record of the Great
hern Railroad.

the early days, the tonnage movement
overwhelmingly toward the West.
prairie country wanted everything
ighout most of the year and had grain
ip eastward for a few months only.

market. It has been claimed that when the rate was made it showed no profit whatever; but it undoubtedly helped to pay the expense of bringing the cars back. A dividend earned by saving expense looks just as good as any other dividend to the stockholder. Mr. Hill found that one of his greatest inventions was the hauling of freight at a loss and making it pay dividends.

As time went on, with larger trainloads, better grades, and better engines, lumber paid its way. An increase in miscellaneous freight from the West also helped to bring



A RAILROAD THAT LEARNED ITS JOB

BURLINGTON," A SYSTEM THAT HAS SOLVED MANY FREIGHT TRAFFIC PROBLEMS AND HELPED TO ACHIEVE A NATIONAL SAVING OF MILLIONS A YEAR

Far West wanted Eastern tonnage all
year round and had nothing to ship
lumber. Now lumber could not be
ed from Washington and Idaho at any
of a reasonable rate to compete with
umber of Michigan and Maine. When
Hill was really building the Great
hern from a little country line to a
k line, the long lines of eastbound
ty cars used to drive him to distraction,
he thought more about how to fill those
up than about anything else.

nally, he went out into the West and
ed out a rate on Washington and Idaho
er that would put it into the Eastern

it about that instead of having more freight moving West than East, the tables were turned and Mr. Hill found himself hauling empty cars to the West. They worried him just as much going that way as they had coming East. When anything bothered Mr. Hill it was time for another traffic revolution.

The Orient, at that time, was opening up. Mr. Hill sent men to the Orient to find out what they wanted most. He found that if American cotton could be laid down in the Orient at a reasonable price there would be a good market for it. He went into the cotton country and made

a rate on cotton to the Orient via Seattle. That is merely an illustration. In addition to that he built two of the biggest freighters that had ever been turned out in American yards and put them to work on the Pacific Ocean. As a result of all this activity he managed, for a while, fairly well to equalize the tonnage East and West. The average trainload went up to a maximum that established records never equalled on a miscellaneous-traffic railroad. Profits on the Great Northern reached dizzy heights. Mr. Hill again demonstrated his claim to be known as the Father of real efficiency in railroading.

When the records show a full trainload on any one track a locomotive is called into service and the full standard train is despatched on its way. Freight does not move like an express; but it moves—which, after all, is the acme of perfection in handling railroad traffic. The American freight car and its efficiency is one of the fundamental bases of our prosperity.

A COMMERCIAL TRAVELER IN THE CABINET

FOURTH ARTICLE OF

WHO GOVERN THE UNITED STATES

SECRETARY WILLIAM C. REDFIELD, OF THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

BY

BURTON J. HENDRICK

THE Wilson administration has a traveling salesman in the Cabinet. Quite appropriately, this traveling salesman occupies the post of Secretary of Commerce. Perhaps it would be more respectful and dignified to describe Mr. William C. Redfield as a "successful business man." However, the fact is that, although Mr. Redfield has filled nearly every position in several large manufacturing plants from shipping clerk to president, his most striking qualities are those usually possessed by the resourceful, energetic getter of business. He is the man who has transformed his factory from a domestic concern into one with trade ramifications in all parts of the world, whose business imagination has reached from Brooklyn to Germany, Egypt, India, and Japan. As Secretary of Commerce Mr. Redfield is also a kind of sublimated commercial traveler for the Nation. His chief ambition is to widen the horizon of American *industry; to* lift the American business *man out of the* slough of parochialism into which he has fallen — largely as a result of a coddling protective tariff; and to make him, what his natural advantages and his own industry and genius entitle him to be, the most aggressive and successful competitor in the markets of the world. It is only a question of a few years, Mr. Redfield believes, when the United States, and not England or Germany, will be the largest exporter of manufactured articles. We are already third. Moreover, the Secretary has definite ideas as to the way in which this change is to be wrought.

It would be impossible, after a few minutes' talk with Mr. Redfield at the Commerce Department, to take him for anything but what he is. As he sits at his desk, now diving at the telephone, now swinging around in his swivel-chair and implanting his feet against the adjacent wall, now jumping up to make a memorandum on a calendar, now leaning forward and emphasizing his point by bringing his fist down upon his palm, now clinching the argument by shaking a

menacing forefinger — he is there again in his native element, not Redfield the public man, the Congressman, the Cabinet minister, but Redfield the maker and seller of drop forgings, the president and traveling representative of the American Blower Company. He talks to you as if you were a prospective customer; his conversation — and he really has a remarkable flow of words — effervesces, idea following idea with a really Gladstonian abundance. Newspaper pictures have already made his appearance pretty familiar; the round, bald head, the small, blue eyes, the red and somewhat weather-beaten face, the rather rotund body and stout legs. He is, indeed, one of the few members of the Cabinet who offer opportunities to the caricaturists. Numerous writers have devoted entire articles to his red and flaxen whiskers; indeed, Mr. Redfield's whiskers have been eagerly seized upon as one of the few picturesque patches in a somewhat gray Administration. But Mr. Redfield has mannerisms that are far more remarkable than these appendages. One is especially noteworthy. When he has reached the climax in his argument he usually leans back in his chair, transforming his body into a straight line from head to feet. He then takes a lead pencil from a pocket, firmly grips it in his hand, and inserts it into his mouth, expressly opened for the purpose. One expects him to bite upon it; but he doesn't; he makes one or two feints, then removes the pencil and replaces it in its pocket. There it remains until another crisis in the conversation arrives. Another cherished Redfield possession is a small note-book. If, in conversation with the Secretary, you happen to say anything worth while, he takes this little book from an inside pocket and makes an entry. As he has been doing this from childhood, Mr. Redfield must have a fair-sized library of such miniature volumes.

In spite of these formidable habits, Mr. Redfield has his less serious side. He is fond of flowers; one of the most familiar sights in Flatbush, the section of Brooklyn in which he lives, is Mr. Redfield, early in the morning, bending over his rose-bushes. In summer time, up in Maine, he enjoys fame as a fisherman; he is one of the most successful choir singers in the City of Churches; he has been known to serve as the impressario of a cantata; proud as he is of being a director in the (reformed) Equitable Life Assurance Society and president of the American Manufacturers Export Association, he is equally proud of being president of the Flatbush Glee Club. As a young man, he even qualified as a member of the Theodore Thomas Chorus. He has found another relaxation from business as superintendent of a Sunday school — a position he filled for fifteen years in a large Presbyterian Church in Brooklyn. Mr. Redfield, in fact, is as well posted on the Bible as on the tariff, and discusses it with the same enthusiasm and authority. He knows as much about the Babylonian captivity as about Schedule K.

After all is said, Mr. Redfield's predominant quality is, indeed, seriousness. It is the most conspicuous note in the Redfield family. He comes of the sternest, rock-bound, New England stock. His father was an abolitionist; he has five sisters living now in Pittsfield, Mass., all notable as leaders in civic work. One sister is secretary of the Anti-Tuberculosis Association, conducts classes in current events, and lectures on European travel; another, the widow of a college professor, is vice-president of the Pittsfield Business Women's Club; another is head of the Berkshire County Home for Aged Women; another presides over the Fresh Air Fund and is the author of "A Reasonable Way to Study the Bible." All the family traditions suggest aggressive citizenship, a keen sense of duty, a realization that the world, after all, is a rather important place. However, although there may have been a tinge of Jonathan Edwardism about the Redfield home, it also had all the good old-fashioned New England qualities. Mr. Redfield is now our leading prophet of "efficiency"; he gained his first conception of efficiency from his mother. The elder Mrs. Redfield's reputation as a housekeeper is still one of the traditions of Pittsfield. In Mr. Redfield's early home nothing was at loose ends; "cost accounts" were clearly understood.

"economic wastes" were unknown, scientific management was developed to a high point. And Mr. Redfield, even as a boy, showed a profound interest in facts and in exact science. With him and his sisters statistics were a perpetual delight. It was in these early Pittsfield days that Mr. Redfield acquired his note-book habit. One of his favorite pastimes was to keep accurate data on such subjects as ocean liners — their names, tonnage, dates of sailing, and similar details; he had also a separate place for entries on locomotives; some of his old friends go so far as to say that his note-books contained records on all the locomotives in the country. Figures certainly interested this remarkable boy more than baseball. Machinery had the same charms for him that the swimming-hole has for most youngsters. That Mr. Redfield knew far more than most boys is the strong impression of his old associates. He was also fond of talking and exceedingly disputatious. On a question of fact he was always right — his accuracy was so deadly, indeed, as to be fairly annoying. When Mr. Redfield, a boy sixteen years old, obtained his first important job — family business reverses made it necessary for him to abandon an ambition to go to college — his industry deeply impressed the town. He worked for a paper man named Whiting, and became known as "Whiting's dray horse." He was a traveling salesman; he used to go from village to village, taking orders, and then, returning to headquarters in Pittsfield, he would pack the merchandise with his own hands, and propel it in a wheel-barrow to the railroad station. For his services he received six dollars a week.

And now Mr. Redfield had his first experience with an economic fallacy which he has since been busily exposing. One day his employer called him into the office and "fired him." He did it gently enough; Redfield was a good man, he said, but he was too expensive. He couldn't afford to pay him six dollars a week; he must get a cheaper man. "It's the only time in my life," says the Secretary, "that I was ever 'bounced.' My employer had *the idea* which so many American manufacturers *have now*, that a high salaried man — like me, getting six dollars a week — was necessarily expensive. Of course, what you pay a man does not signify whether he is cheap or expensive; it's what he produces that regulates the matter." Mr. Redfield has since elaborated this idea in several masterly speeches; he never tires of exposing the accepted theory that wages, considered apart from the real point — the efficiency of workmen — is an element that determines the cost of production. Discouraging as this early experience was, therefore, it was not thrown away. Resiliency is one of the Secretary's distinctive characteristics; he quickly rebounded from this misfortune, and found himself in Beekman Street, New York, looking for a job. From now on his career is that of the average self-made American "business man." He sat upon a high stool as an accountant, stood back of a cashier's cage, collected bills, went on the road, acted as salesman in a furniture store, and learned the routine in other ways. All the time he was exercising that innate love of statistics and developing his natural tendency to "scientific management." Certain "inefficiencies" in modern business continually impressed him. Once he had a place as bookkeeper in a newly established iron works. He soon discovered that his employers had no idea what their product was costing. They were selling machines for $8,000 that cost them $9,000 to make. Mr. Redfield, in his precise and confident manner, laid these facts before the president.

"You're an arrogant young man," the president said. "Do you think you know more about my business than I do? — I, who have been making these machines for thirty years?"

That, of course, is the attitude of the average manufacturer to-day to the outsider who attempts to teach him "efficiency." In this particular case the haphazard method proved fatal; the corporation failed, and Mr. Redfield moved on. His next employer, Mr. J. H. Williams, of Brooklyn, was a man of an entirely different stamp. He was a business man who made good Mr. Redfield's fondest dreams. In fact, Mr. Williams was apparently one of the most remarkable

lucts of American industrialism. In conception of the economic basis of ufacturing, of the connection between perity and the tariff, and of the re-n of employer and employee, he had hed, in 1885, a stage of enlightenment h only a minority of American manu-ırers have attained to-day. Thirty s ago his establishment fulfilled the rest requirements of the modern ency engineers. He had his costs ed down to hundredths of a cent; nachinery was always adapted to its icular task; his men were contented, strious, and prosperous. Mr. Wil-s, indeed, had a completely thought-philosophy of business. He separated essential qualifications to success into parts — labor, management, coöpera-and machinery; and this represented ›rder of precedence. The human ele-t, in his estimation, was the most im-ant. His house could never prosper, he to say, unless his men prospered, too. prosperous workmen, he declared, right-demanded four things: good wages, larity of employment, reasonably short s, and the advantages now generally n as "welfare work." He regarded it e most enlightened economy that he wages higher, if anything, than any of competitors; he voluntarily cut the ing day from ten hours to nine, the t being, as he had foretold, a better and ely diminished product. He never ped his men on piecework; he per-ed them to earn just as much as they l; the more they earned, he said, the r for his business. "Earn as much ou can," he used to say to his men, l don't be afraid of earning too much." nan struck for higher pay on adequate nds, Mr. Williams regarded it as indi-g inefficiency — in management; a erly managed concern ought to know ı circumstances warranted a "raise," he took pride in the fact that practi-all the advances were made unsoli-, such was the men's confidence in He was a pioneer in "welfare work"; actory was the first in this country stall a hospital and bath tubs for its men. All these things Mr. Williams ıed to have done not primarily because he was a humane man, although he was that, but because he looked upon these things as good business. For the same reason he disagreed on broad lines with the policies of protectionists, rivals and customers alike. Indeed, he often said that if it would result in a general lowering of our tariff walls, he would be glad to forego the artificial protection of his own products. And Mr. Williams's career seemed to justify these revolutionary procedures. In 1883, two years before Mr. Redfield joined his staff, the plant consisted of a rented wooden shed and three hammers — he was a manufacturer of drop forgings; it now occupies three whole city blocks. There were other compensations. When Mr. Williams died, in 1904, every employee attended his funeral by general request; his wife stood at the head of the coffin and shook hands with them all.

What Mr. Redfield is to-day, he largely owes to this inspiring association, although many of his tariff views have since expanded with his subsequent associations with other industries. Mr. Williams evidently found in his new bookkeeper a kindred spirit. Mr. Redfield's rise was rapid; in a few years he became vice-president and, at Mr. Williams's death, succeeded him as president for a year before he went into the manufacture of blowers. Here Mr. Redfield had learned and practised those principles of scientific management with which his name is now identified; he had also acquired, from actual experience, considerable knowledge of foreign trade. In the 'nineties the Williams concern found its largest market in the bicycle business; with the collapse of the bicycle industry, it had to open up new fields. Drop forgings, in which it specialized, were largely used in Europe; to most Americans, however, the idea of competing for this business was absurd, as the foreign manufacturers monopolized it. Didn't the Williams concern pay the highest wages of all manufacturers? Didn't the English and German factories have the advantage of the "pauper labor" of Europe? In the opinion of Mr. Williams and Mr. Redfield, however, these facts did not settle the matter; they were "insane" enough to believe that they could still pay high

American wages and still compete in foreign markets. Their machinery, they believed, was more efficient; their organization more economic; they had eliminated waste; herein, in their minds, they had the advantage. So, in 1900, Mr. Redfield went to Europe to explore the new field. His trip proved a success. In many places he found that he could compete with the foreigner; sometimes in price, more often in product, sometimes in both. Orders from Europe increased. He even went into such iron and steel headquarters as Manchester and Birmingham and took orders under the noses of the English manufacturers — just as, in recent years, Americans have sold steel rails for the tram cars in Sheffield. As a result of these experiences Mr. Redfield's contempt for a protective tariff was naturally intensified. One day a fellow manufacturer came into his office with a petition, addressed to Congress, asking that the tariff on their products be increased. He asked Mr. Redfield to sign it.

"Unfortunately," said Mr. Redfield, "I have already signed a petition asking that our duty be reduced. What do you want the tariff put up for?"

"So that we can keep up the American rate of wages and the American standard of living."

"I'll tell you what I'll do," said Mr. Redfield, "I'll withdraw the other petition and sign yours on this condition: that you enter into an agreement with me here, in case the increased duty is obtained, to add that percentage to the payroll of your employees."

But his competitor left the office in a huff.

Mr. Redfield left the Williams company nine years ago and became a manufacturer of blowers. Up to 1911, he was practically unknown outside of Brooklyn. At the special session of Congress in that year, however, he made his appearance in Washington; (the Democratic landslide that fall had carried him into Congress.) Until then Mr. Redfield, except for a term as Commissioner of Public Works under Mayor Seth Low, had figured little in public life. And he certainly showed little practical political insight. At first he struck most observers as a rath figure in Washington. He see culiarly out of key with his surro He had none of the *camaraderie* so essential to popularity in the C He was too much the bustling b man; he walked rapidly throu corridors, sat at his desk with a occupied air of a factory president ing himself to the day's work, a pressed most people as powerfully in his facts but rather feeble in his He was nothing of a handshaker or a slapper; he always seemed to be hurry; to those who approached h air was too much one of "What ca for you this morning?" He had a comfortable habit, when fellow me were talking to him, of pulling o watch, caressing his whiskers, p glancing up at the ceiling. Even important party members dropped his office, Mr. Redfield was too inclined to finger his mail. Whe Redfield did unbend there was a p in his manner that irritated. He fondness for making impressio versation with him too frequently a mere monologue. He liked to m points forcefully, to use exaggera ticulations, and to work up cum to a dramatic suspense. These were unquestionably unconscious, sult of a life spent in hard, com business, and did not indicate any mental objection to social amenit as a result, his associates hesitate disturbing him. When Mr. Redfi day, rose to speak, therefore, his n at the beginning was not over That he should raise his voice a fe after taking his seat in itself wa recommendation. Members at th session, like little children, are seen and not heard. Mr. Redfield ness experience, however, had taug that the man who asserts himself is who succeeds. Those who had watching him in the preceding fe knew that something was going on Republicans had been speaking tariff; the usual banalities — labor, American wages, the futi competing with Europe — had one

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MR. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD

ETARY OF COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, AT HIS DESK IN THE DEPARTMENT OFFICES IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

dragged out to do service in a rather king, rusty debate. As the thing went Mr. Redfield even noticeably became fidgety; every once in a while he d pull an old envelope from his pocket make a few pencil notes.

Finally," he says, recalling the episode, got so mad I couldn't stand it any er." He jumped up and exploded.

e had no prepared speech — only a scrawling notes on the envelope. Dr. nes says that every man can write ast one good novel, if only he takes his life as the subject; similarly, every can probably make at least one good ch, if only he bases it upon his own rience. When Mr. Redfield started, few members present were busily ing and reading their papers; but his p, staccato voice, and the torrential of his words soon made them cast papers aside. Other members began tray in from the lobbies and cloakns, and in a few minutes Mr. Redfield the attention of the whole House. At first a few Republican leaders attempted to interrupt; the rapidity with which Mr. Redfield, however, "embalmed those flies in the amber of his eloquence" soon discouraged attacks of this kind. Mr. Redfield had really spent thirty years in the preparation of that one speech; in fact, the few months preceding the session he had spent traveling in Europe, Africa, India, the Philippines, Japan, and other lands — as a salesman for his new business, the American Blower Company. He was taking large orders for these useful articles in Bombay, when a cablegram called him home for the special session. He was thus well prepared to meet the charge that American manufacturers could not compete in foreign markets. Part of his speech was simply an itinerary of his selling campaigns abroad. He told how he had ridden behind American locomotives in Japan and Formosa; how he had seen Chinamen wearing American cotton goods in Manchuria; how he had read his paper by

SECRETARY REDFIELD AS A BOY
DURING HIS SCHOOLDAYS AT PITTSFIELD, MASS.

American electric lights in Calcutta; and shaved himself in Java with the assistance of soap made in New Jersey. He analyzed

MR. REDFIELD IN EARLY MANHOOD

labor costs as they had never been anal before in Congress. When Mr. Red finished that speech he had made self a national figure. The whole discussion had taken a new plane. rejoiced the Democrats was that things had been said, not by a co professor or a "theorist," but by a cessful manufacturer. The governm printing office could hardly supply demand for that speech. Nearly 3,0 000 copies were ultimately circula As a result of this success Mr. Red became the most loquacious first-t Congressman Washington had seen years. Despite the admonitions of friends who told him he was "talking much," he made nine speeches — m of them solid, forceful, and useful in fo ing public opinion.

Hunters of historical parallels may some similarities between Mr. Redfi career so far and Cobden's. Cobden, Mr. Redfield, was born poor, had to cate himself and make his own way. likewise served an apprenticeship a commercial traveler, and gained his kn edge of trade by actual experience manufacturer and by foreign travel. came to Parliament unknown and im diately made himself famous by a si speech assailing the protective tarif his day. He held up before the Eng public the weaknesses of the corn law Mr. Redfield has held up the absurd of Schedule K. And the corn laws the fighting-point of the tariff in Robert Peel's time just as the wool du are the storm centre at the present sess

All these things explain Mr. Redfi presence in the Wilson cabinet. H the Administration's spokesman on ma facturing and trade questions. He a new "advance agent of prosperity" of a democratic kind. The Redf influence was plainly marked in the Pr dent's message on the currency — in forecasting the "new industrial day" the day when efficiency takes the pl of waste, when American resources genius, freed from the restraining hand a high protective tariff, strikes out i its own strong, independent stride. casionally even now committees of ma

urers come to Mr. Redfield to protest nst the pending tariff bill. They are riably submitted to a minute and oncerting cross-examination. Re- ly, for example, a broken-hearted ufacturer came in and declared that, er the new conditions, he couldn't ibly make 6 per cent. on his stock. What is your capitalization?" the etary began. A few minutes' con- ation disclosed that the complainant increased his capitalization six times out adding a penny to his equipment. had been milking his business for years nd now complained because the ernment wouldn't subsidize him her. Mr. Redfield asked him about system of keeping costs — and found the manufacturer's mind was blank the subject.

oward men of this type, however, the artment's attitude is not hostile, but ful. A general course in industrial cation is part of the Administration's s. And this brings us to the most resting and original idea brought out the new Secretary. When Mr. Red- outlined his new policy, at a dinner the employing lithographers a short e ago, the newspapers at once devoted mns to what was called "Redfield's at." But Mr. Redfield made no reat." The situation was this: the loying lithographers had issued a lic statement that, in case the new ff went into effect, they would imme- ely reduce wages. Mr. Redfield, in pting their invitation to speak, de- d his remarks largely to this state- t. If the lithographers actually re- d wages, he said, it would properly he duty of his department to investi- the industry and find out to what nt such a reduction was justified. an investigation, he declared, would undertaken in the most judicial and ntific spirit. It would include all es of the business — materials, manage- t, machinery, plants, locations, wages, talization, and the like. If the erican lithographers, he said, found they couldn't compete with European, s properly the duty of the Department Commerce to find out why. Was it

MR. REDFIELD'S BOYHOOD HOME

AT PITTSFIELD, MASS., WHERE HE DEVELOPED THE APPRECIATIVE UNDERSTANDING OF STATISTICS THAT IS NOW CHARACTERISTIC OF HIM

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AN INFORMAL PORTRAIT

necessary to jump to the conclusion that high wages made it impossible; might not the difficulty be in any of the other items that determine cost? Mr. Redfield mercilessly drove home his point by quoting from leading articles in the lithographers' own trade papers. These papers for months had been filled with complaints of the "inefficiency" of American lithographing plants; their wastes, their unscientific use of materials, and the like. Possibly these elements, said Mr. Redfield, explained why Americans found international competition difficult; at least it might become the duty of his department to find out.

THE LATE J. H. WILLIAMS

MR. REDFIELD'S EMPLOYER AND PARTNER IN THE MANUFACTURING BUSINESS, FROM WHOM HE GAINED THE ORIGINS OF THE PROGRESSIVE BUSINESS IDEALS WHICH, IN THEIR LATER INDEPENDENT DEVELOPMENT, MADE THE SECRETARY A LEADER IN THE MOVEMENT FOR TARIFF REFORM

"The newspapers," says Mr. Redfield, "entirely distorted what I said. They asserted that I had threatened to expose to the world the inside secrets of any plant that reduced wages. I had said nothing of the kind. I never purposed to investigate any individual plant; all that I suggested was that we might in the industry as a whole. It improper, of course, for this dep to hold up individual manufa obloquy and make public the their business. It would be entirely however, to make a scientific ex of a whole industry. Such an tion, conducted by experts immensely valuable. The ma would learn a great deal from are paying efficiency engineers la to do for them this very thing in this case the Government free. Such an investigation, conducted, would show the ma new and economic methods of ment, give them new ideas on the side — we have an elaborate Standards here, in charge of so country's most experienced chem could unquestionably find out would be practically valuable lithographing trade or in any oth an investigation would also sho extent high wages are, after all, for the high cost of the product. explanation, I stand now upon I said to the lithographers. T tion, however, was not put f spirit of a threat; rather of Indeed, we are making no investigation of the potters This is being made at the re potters themselves. When finished — and the investigatio ably take a year — we shall about this particular industr have ever known before. An mation will be valuable espec potters themselves."

Unquestionably, the Secreta merce is a man who improves ance. Since the fourth of M critics have been eagerly look "Ballinger of the Wilson Admi several men have served their turn; at one time Mr. Redfie of his supposed "break" in hi the lithographers, was accla likely candidate. But Washin revising its estimate. It reco Redfield as a man of brains a industrial imagination.

A PROJECTILE EMERGING FROM THE MUZZLE OF A MORTAR

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NEW WONDERS OF PHOTOGRAPHY

CAPTURING PERFECT PICTURES OF PROJECTILES IN FLIGHT BY THE USE OF AN INVENTION THAT MAKES POSSIBLE NEGATIVES TAKEN IN ONE FIVE-THOUSANDTH OF A SECOND

BY

W. N. TAFT

MR. GUSTAV DIETZ, of New York, and Capt. Francis H. Behr, an official photographer of the Coast Artillery Corps, have solved the problem presented by the highest of high-speed photography by which the Army hopes to answer questions of ordnance which would almost certainly have remained riddles but for their invention. Their camera differs from the ordinary machine in only two particulars — its size and its shutter. It is about four feet in height and each of its parts is, of course, correspondingly larger than that of the ordinary kodak. It (there is only one at present) is equipped with the finest two-inch lens, and great care is taken that this valuable piece of glass remains unspecked and unharmed by the dangerous gases which surround it during some of the tests.

But the chief value of the novel camera lies in the shutter, which is the invention of Mr. Dietz. This shutter is operated by an electric motor that makes several thousand revolutions a minute. As the speed of this motor is capable of accurate adjustment, the photographer can determine the exact length of the exposure up to $\frac{1}{5000}$ of a second. This is the shortest fraction of time during which the light waves will make a definite impression on the highly sensitized plates and, as it is possible to obtain clear photographs of

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THE PROJECTILE ALMOST OUT OF THE MUZZLE
AND THE SMOKE RING JUST BEGINNING TO APPEAR

projectiles in flight with this exposure, experiments with other kinds of shutters or plates were not conducted.

Once the style of camera was definitely decided upon, the next problem was how to release the shutter at the exact time the shell was in the position desired. This was manifestly impossible through mere human means because the eye cannot even perceive the shell in flight, much less give the order necessary for the pressing of a button so as to catch the projectile in mid-air. Captain Behr worked out the *following method* as the most practicable:

A delicate screen, formed of electrically charged wires, is placed in the muzzle of the mortar or rifle which is to be used in connection with the test. Other wires are attached to this screen and the camera is trained on the place where it is calculated the shell will be when the shutter clicks. As the speed of the projectile is a known quantity, being dependent on the strength of the charge, this is a simple problem in mathematics.

Upon the firing of the gun the shell breaks the screen and completes the circuit, thus flashing the eye of the camera

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THE SMOKE RING COMPLETELY OBSCURING THE PROJECTILE

open for the fraction of a second necessary to record the flight of the projectile. By regulating the current and the speed of the electric motor it has been found possible to catch shells just as they leave the mouth of the gun, suspended in mid-air, or as they strike the target. In the latter case the screen which regulates the shutter is placed in front of the target instead of inside the gun itself.

Captain Behr was forced to spend many months and thousands of dollars before he finally perfected his device for photographing shells in flight. The first photographs showed the projectile to be about eight feet long. This was because the exposure was $\frac{1}{2000}$ of a second, and during that time the shell traveled far enough to appear on the negative as twice its actual length. When the exposure was reduced to $\frac{1}{5000}$, however, the impression of the shell was found to be clear, distinct, and in exact proportion.

Captain Behr made a number of his most important experiments with mortars, the mainstay of the Coast Artillery Service. Before finishing its plans for the fortification of the Panama Canal the authorities of the War Department desired to obtain more accurate knowledge

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A PERFECT SMOKE RING "MUSHROOMING"

of the working of this integral part of the coast defenses. The dean of the army photographers was therefore chosen to carry on the experiments, and he discovered many things formerly unknown, secrets which will be extremely useful in any future war in which the United States may participate.

With this unique camera Captain Behr succeeded in getting views of mortar shells in all positions, up to the time when they ceased their upward flight and started to descend. By a close inspection of these views a number of faults in connection with the mortars have been discovered and will be remedied in all the new models as they are manufactured.

The formation of the deadly "smoke ring" which immediately follows the issuance of the projectile was also accurately depicted by the Behr camera. The phenomenon of the smoke ring is one of the most peculiar connected with the mortars. Almost before the shell appears the ring of gaseous smoke can be seen, obscuring the muzzle of the gun and rising rapidly upward. Gunners claim that this smoke ring is rendered as hard as steel by reason of its centrifugal velocity, and the story is told at Fortress Monroe of a luck-

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AS THE SMOKE RING IS USUALLY SEEN BY THE EYE

less seagull which flew into a "ring" several hundred feet in the air and, stripped of its feathers, was cast down upon the mortar, killed by the friction of the gas.

Recent developments in photography have opened up a field of experimentation to army and navy officials in the science of ordnance which has previously been in complete darkness. The problem next to be attacked is: "What does a twelve-inch shell do when it strikes armor? How does the steel act during the instant of penetration and what happens to the shell just after it explodes?"

The answers to these questions may solve the problem of why an armor-piercing projectile with the hardest possible "nose," or point, will not itself penetrate armor. It must be "capped" with steel of the softest nature. This fact has been known for years. Its explanation is as yet undiscovered.

Army officials expect to see, through the eye of the new camera, many things which have previously defied explanation. Thirty feet away from the armor plate the camera will show with absolute precision what the modern high-power shell does when it plows its way through Harveyized steel. From negatives showing pieces of a shell

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THE PROJECTILE TRAVELING AT THE RATE OF 800 MILES AN HOUR

one five-thousandth of a second after it has burst, scientists may discover a way to make steel stronger by remedying unknown defects in the modern hardening and tempering processes.

It is understood that a shell is heated red-hot by the friction of the air and that it is at an even higher temperature when crashing through armor plate. The question of whether a projectile enters the target whirling rapidly or if it has lost its rotary motion in its flight is also of first importance to the manufacturers of armor plate and of the shells to pierce it.

All these problems and as many more are perhaps on the verge of solution through the medium of a wonderful camera which operates so rapidly that there is no motion of a tangible object which cannot be recorded on the highly sensitized plates.

The study of these problems has hitherto been based altogether upon theory and upon costly experiments that at best could never be conclusive because the elements in the calculations could be observed only at rest — before the shot was fired and after the shell had struck. Photography has now brought to view at least the beginning and the end of flight of the projectile.

A MASTER-MISTRESS OF EDUCATION

MISS M. CAREY THOMAS, PRESIDENT OF BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, WHOSE GUIDANCE HAS DEVELOPED ONE OF THE MOST EFFICIENT INSTITUTIONS FOR THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN AND A REMARKABLE SELF-GOVERNING DEMOCRACY OF AMERICAN GIRLS

BY

SARAH COMSTOCK

MORE than forty years ago a little girl prayed God to remove her from an unjust world if it were really true that girls were so constituted as to be unable to master Greek and go to college and understand things. She had heard that this was true; and, inasmuch as she wanted nothing in the world so much as education, she preferred not to live without it. To-day she is president of one of the most remarkable of women's colleges, a college which is what it is because of what Dr. Horace Howard Furness has called her "master-mistress mind."

President M. Carey Thomas, of Bryn Mawr College, would probably be the last person on earth to admit the truth of this commendation. Her mind is so busy accomplishing feats that it has no time left in which to admire itself. In fact, she would give you the impression that Bryn Mawr has, by some mysterious process, worked its own way to the position in which it stands to-day, as if she had had nothing to do with blazing the trail.

And yet, if ever an institution reflected the spirit of its leader, this college does. The passion for learning which inspired the little girl's prayers, and has burned at white heat through a half century, and the innate democracy of the woman, are

AN OPEN-AIR PLAY AT BRYN MAWR

the two vital forces which animate the life of this little group of girls among the Pennsylvania hills.

She has brought into existence one of the most perfectly constituted democracies that exists. It is a democracy such as men and nations might afford the time to pause before and examine. It is nothing more or less than a self-government of 430 young women, the sort of wholesome, level-headed, outdoor young women who make up our best type of college girls. They are no less human than girls of all types the world over; temptation in the form of dinner dances in study hours, and May-day idleness when there are examinations to be prepared for, besets the Bryn Mawr girls just as often as it besets young femininity elsewhere; yet they meet it and come off victorious. They sit in judgment upon one another, keeping order in their own halls, sternly refusing one another permission for undue gaieties, suspending one another, even expelling one another, with never an older head to advise. Where rules issued and punishments meted out by faculties fail, the government of these girls by themselves succeeds.

Self-government in colleges, and even in lower schools, is no longer new; but Bryn Mawr College earned the title of pioneer. Before any other had dared this radical form of government, Miss Thomas, then a very young woman and dean of the *institution, had* urged that this group of girls be given full power to rule themselves. The thing was tried; it is now almost thirty years old.

Dr. Joseph Taylor, a Quaker gentleman of the old school, was founder of the college and, in early days, its president. In charge of its classrooms he placed a corps of young bachelors, who were to guide the young and charming students along the briery paths of Greek, biology, and calculus. This was the situation which Miss Thomas, then in her twenties, faced in 1885. Hardly more than a girl herself, her task was to look to the conduct of these other girls.

The task did not look easy. Her keen eyes, with a Welsh ancestry behind their keenness, set to work to investigate, and her brain to reflect. Ruling these girls by rigid, boarding-school-missish regulations appeared futile. They were an independent and mentally advanced type, and inclined to rule themselves.

Only a mind of big initiative and daring would have risked the thing which Miss Thomas risked twenty-seven years ago. But it was just that sort of mind. Take a glance back over its accomplishments, and the situation looks clearer.

First, when Martha Carey Thomas was a little girl she had agonized in prayer over what we now call the woman question — at that time hardly vexed enough to be termed a question at all. She had suffered from awful doubts as to whether women

MISS M. CAREY THOMAS

ER WHOSE PRESIDENCY BRYN MAWR COLLEGE HAS BECOME ONE OF THE FOREMO
AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN

A PANORAMIC VIEW OF THE CAMPUS AND

were physically and mentally fit for college — to be sure, she couldn't find any proof to the contrary, but people said they were unfit. And through all this storm and stress she had held to the underlying belief that she could go to college and learn what men learn, and the event of her life was her meeting with a college woman — a Vassar graduate.

She drank in this wonderful creature. "She's exactly like other delightful women," was the summing up.

Here, then, was a proof. Woman could do it. To the young girl, born in conservative Baltimore, trained in private schools, this meeting was a great dramatic situation.

She was beginning to shake herself free.

She announced that she would go to Cornell University. This was not what a Baltimore young lady usually did, but Miss Thomas bore off a degree in 1877.

Next she spent a year at Johns Hopkins.

Next she decided to go to Leipzig for advanced study. Perhaps the going was even less significant than the fact that she did the deciding for herself. In that point lay the real pioneering. After she reached Germany, the first news from home was that family friends were preserving a sort of hush regarding this unconventional daughter in the presence of her mother, and hardly spoke of her, as if she had brought some sort of disgrace upon the *family and* was to be mentioned barely above a whisper. Miss Thomas maintained a firm chin and continued her study. She passed from the University of Leipzig to Göttingen and Zurich.

She was still in her twenties, and yet she could look back over years of achievement and realize that through them all she had been a self-governed, self-responsible individual. This surely explains why it occurred to her that other girls had a right to rule themselves just as she had done. If she had been by instinct a conformist herself she would have demanded hide-bound rules for others. But if you should see her to-day you would read in one glance the fact that she never was one. There is too high a brow under her white hair to permit her to accept others' explanations until she has probed them with her own mind. There is a determination in the chin that never succumbed merely because it was told to do so. And there is too much humor twinkling in her dark eyes to miss the joke that lurks in accepted standards.

And therefore, when higher education for women under any conditions was so new as to be a bit shocking, what did this mind of initiative and daring do but rise up and recommend self-government in a little Quaker college for girls. For, although the institution was undenominational in name, it was strongly Quaker in atmosphere at that time.

BUILDINGS AT BRYN MAWR COLLEGE

In 1886, then, Miss Thomas, exercising her authority as dean, gave informally into the hands of these girls their own conduct. At that period, when the college for women was not far removed from the young ladies' seminary in spirit, we can picture the authorities of other colleges looking on with tremulous alarm while they waited to see this foolhardy young school wreck itself. But the wreck did not occur. A venture is counted foolhardy, or not, according to its outcome. For this reason educators look back upon Bryn Mawr's pioneering in self-government as an event which has made history. From East to West today the college girl is coming to be recognized as a responsible human being who can control her own conduct and who will control it far better if it be left in her own hands, on the principle that the only fun in breaking rules lies in having rules to break. It was Miss M. Carey Thomas who first pointed this out.

But although other colleges and schools have followed, Bryn Mawr still stands unique in the completeness of its democracy: for it admits no member of the faculty even in an advisory capacity to its board of discipline. Miss Thomas does not lead liberty on leash. In 1892, when the experiment was about a half-dozen years old, the girls asked that a charter be given to them which should establish a permanent government of their own. The president and trustees gladly gave the girls in letter what they already possessed in spirit; and in their constitution it is to be read that "to the Bryn Mawr Students' Association for Self-Government the president and dean shall entrust the exclusive management of all matters concerning the conduct of students in their college life which do not fall under the jurisdiction of the authorities of the college or of the mistresses of the halls of residence." And upon closer inspection one finds that the matters which are left to the faculty are practically all academic, and that the mistresses of the halls are concerned no more with discipline than are hostesses in a houseful of guests — only with the matters which, without question, belong to the management of the household. As for the behavior of the girls, that is attended to by proctors of their own appointing.

Now observe the workings. Take, for example, a young freshman, we will say Miss Minerva Smith. She has been reared in a conservative family, this is her first going-away, she hears that the faculty does not discipline, and a glittering vision of liberty suddenly dazzles her eyes. On the first available day she takes a train for Philadelphia, and devotes herself to shopping. Later on she meets old friends, dines, stays over night and spends Sunday

COMMENCEMENT EXERCISES IN THE GYMNASIUM

with them, reaches the station in time for the nine-forty-five train, and half an hour later is at Bryn Mawr.

Now it so happens — both Minerva and the case are hypothetical, you understand — it so happens that Miss Thomas is on the same train. She has observed the freshman slipping aboard. She considers the situation on the way out. She says nothing to the young lady. But the next day she speaks casually to one of the officers of the Association.

"Miss Minerva Smith, that new student, came out on the nine-forty-five train last evening," she observes, and that is all. Absolutely all. She dismisses the matter

VISITORS ON THE LAWN ON COMMENCEMENT DAY AT BRYN MAWR COLLEGE

from her mind. She mentioned it merely as any other observer might, in wishing to aid the Association in its work. If the students choose to take up the matter, well and good; if not, it will never be referred to again.

Next day a note comes to Minerva. It is not from the president, dean, or any other of the mature powers-that-be. It is from certain authorized members of the Students' Association, which elects its officers wholly from the ranks of the students. In the note Minerva Smith is reminded that, in the first place, she left the college for overnight without registering her address in the hall; and that, secondly, she has broken the rule that the seven-forty-five on weekdays, and the eight-fifteen on Sundays, are the latest trains which students are permitted to take unescorted, and the nine-fifteen is the latest in any case.

"But I thought there were no rules for conduct made by the faculty!" she protests to a junior.

"There aren't. The rules are our own. And you won't find many faculties that enforce rules as strictly as we do," warns the weathered junior.

Miss Minerva is given a chance to mend her ways, but is made to understand that repeated offences mean a penalty. The fact that her fellow students frown upon her careless conduct strikes her forcibly. It dawns upon her that liberty in its truest sense is the most austere form of government; she hears that these girl students warn, punish, if necessary expel, offenders without asking advice from anybody.

To be sure, they are not often called upon to use such extreme measures, for in the main the self-government achieves its end of excellent conduct. But the girl who will not enter into the spirit of it ever and anon appears, and she is dealt with to the full measure of the law.

Perhaps, in the beginning, the troublesome freshman was like Minerva Smith and did not understand. But if the executive board becomes fully convinced of her law-breaking spirit, it summons her before its court, gives her a hearing, calls upon witnesses, and judges. Her sin may have taken any one of many forms. Perhaps, fairly tremulous in the excitement of her own devilment, she may have lighted a cigarette! Possibly she has crossed the campus in male attire, having dressed thus for her rôle in a play. She may have made a social engagement with some male member of the faculty. She may have secretly turned the strawberry lemonade into punch at a tea. She may have returned so late that the low windows offered an easy means of entering her dormitory, unknown. She may have invited a man caller to her own study without a chaperon. Once a student smuggled her own brother into the gymnasium, disguising him in feminine garments.

Slowly the mills of the students grind, but woe to the sinner when the grinding is done. If it be agreed by the executive board that the victim be suspended for six weeks, possibly expelled, Miss Thomas is asked to go through the form of dismissal. This is a mere matter of form, however; the board knows that its decision will stand. The president has never yet vetoed such a decision; this she would not risk doing, for one veto would overthrow the democracy. But the significant fact is: she has never yet wanted to veto.

And so, in the guise of a detached observer, she looks on as if she had nothing to do with it all. Occasionally some infringement of rules comes to her attention — as, for instance, Minerva Smith's offence — but she merely reports the incident to the students in authority, to assist them.

And yet her spirit is the vital force animating this remarkable government, small, compact, isolate, and practically perfect as a republic. So, too, her insistence upon ideals of scholarship is behind that proverbially high standard of requirements in entrance examinations and for graduation. It is a standard which keeps the college small; it does not even attempt to accommodate more than about four hundred and fifty students, and it annually weeds out two thirds of its applicants by examination. The girl who carries off a Bryn Mawr diploma must be ready to fight for it. And no matter how hard her struggle for learning, it cannot possibly be as hard as was the struggle of this woman who has

made these privileges possible to her; for she, of another generation, fought against the overwhelming odds of prejudice.

In the days of her earliest struggles, she wept over the story of Adam and Eve because she thought that the curse pronounced upon Eve might imperil girls' going to college. She searched books everywhere for light upon the possibilities of woman, and often found her hopes rebuffed by even the greatest. Milton excited her rage and indignation and she condemned him as a woman-hater; even Shakespeare, she felt, was not entirely fair to her sex intellectually. And so, through inward storm, rebuked by her period, she fought on, educating herself in America and Europe. The degree she had earned at the University of Leipzig from 1879 to 1882 was refused her on account of her sex; a like fate befell her at the University of Göttingen; but the University of Zürich finally granted her the degree of Ph.D., *summa cum laude*, the highest degree, at that time, ever awarded to a woman. It was a sort of martial experience for a girl; it brought the iron to the surface. No wonder it was with an austerity of standard that she started on her career as an educator. And somehow, by that occult process which we all have experienced, that austerity has contrived to permeate the air of Bryn Mawr. The students inhale it.

She will not permit Bryn Mawr College to accept the certificates of schools in lieu of its own examinations. These are given annually in twenty or more centres. When the days of examinations are over, the little group that President Thomas looks over as it faces its freshman year is only one third of those who applied for entrance, a picked and tiny army.

And now come the four years of still keener effort. This college dared to undertake the group system of studies, adopting it from Johns Hopkins in early days, when other colleges for women were trying no venturesome experiments of such a nature. Every girl has her major subjects to which she must give one and a third years of her time. Chemistry and physics may be woven together, or political economy and history, or Greek and Latin. Another third of a year must go to some science, another third to another science, or to political economy, or history, or law, or mathematics, another third to the history of philosophy, another third to whichever one of the four languages was omitted at entrance (Greek, Latin, French, and German were offered, three to be chosen), and another third for two years to English literature and the correct writing and pronunciation of our language. Here you have, then, only a highly modified form of specialization. The major subjects are chosen by the student, but so many subjects are required of her that she is bound to have a pretty general education before she gets through. She cannot escape these subjects, whether she is interested in them or not.

All this is part of that greed for learning and more learning, both for herself and others, which fills Miss Thomas. A four years' course is none too long, according to the president's stern doctrine, to prepare to specialize. In a day when the vocational mania is abroad in the land, there is something formidable in viewing the foundation required here for a superstructure later on. In a day when we smatter through countless subjects in a quick preparation, that we may hurry on to our specialty, this groundwork for life looks like the great wall of China beside the underpinning of a portable house.

Bryn Mawr is the only woman's college to maintain a graduate school. Barnard and Radcliffe have such schools, but only as they share the privilege with the men's universities to which they are allied. There is a theory in this Pennsylvania institution that not only should the opportunity for further study be offered to women, but that it is a good thing for the undergraduates — this contact with graduate workers — and that it is stimulating to a faculty. This school is one of Miss Thomas's pet hobbies.

Just one curious requirement for graduation is a sidelight upon her passion for perfection. She has instituted the rule that every candidate for graduation must pass in sight-reading of French and German. The little room with its long table in which every senior must go through

ordeal has been described as "quiet, lly quiet," with the president sitting to face with the victim and two other bers of the faculty ready to hear her ble through those alarming phrases. Gibraltar-like austerity, combined an infallible sense of humor which acterizes Miss Thomas, makes the at once terrifying and funny. Other ges call for no such intimate knowl- of the languages; but Bryn Mawr erciless, and the girl who cannot get ugh the test must give up her degree. means only an hour's reading a day ugh three summer vacations," lly observes Bryn Mawr!

ie fact that Bryn Mawr has happened ducate a great many daughters of thy families has given rise to no value ashion for fashion's sake. Snobbery ig girls, even if it should appear, d wither in short order before the ing mind of this woman whose own lards tolerate no favoritism. Cer- girls have brought maids with them; were girls who had always been in habit of having their glove-buttons d on and their hairpins arranged for , but it turned out that in a few ths' time they found it convenient to the maids home and look after selves. Secret sororities have never admitted within these walls; it is known that the president does not ove of them, that they would be tly opposed to her ideas of democracy. societies she encourages are founded achievement, or are meant to pro- interest in study.

e weeds to get her professors just as veeds for a picked group of students; that nothing matters but excellence is n in this: there are more men than en in her faculty. Now she is a nist, has always been absorbed in the an question, is one of the foremost agists in our country to-day, and if were the partisan that many a suffra- is she would choose women because are women. Instead of that she es only to have the best professors. would be glad if they happened to f her own sex; but as they often happen to be of the other, she does not try to deceive herself. This is one of the most distinctive traits of the woman: no one, not even Miss M. Carey Thomas, can deceive her. She looks others and herself straight in the eye and demands an honest explanation — and she has the kind of an eye that gets it.

It is as jovial an eye as it is formidable, however, at appropriate moments. It can dance over a girl's mischief even while the law is being upheld. Altogether she is a quaint figure, this Quaker-born lady with the Welsh ancestry. You may find her in the afternoon in a plain shirtwaist and a still plainer skirt, with her white hair drawn back as if there were too few precious years of life to spend a moment more than necessary in adorning a coiffure. There is a severe plainness about the whole figure; and here it sits, monarch in a sort of intellectual palace — a home which is a treasure-house of rare books and exquisite ornaments from foreign lands. Room after room rambles on in this luxury, a luxury that represents wealth of mind rather than wealth of purse. And through the palace bustles this plain little woman in a shirt-waist, now hurrying to the long reception room to receive a nationally famous caller, next to the office to dictate a mass of urgent letters, seeing every task in clear-cut outlines which clip it down to the minimum time. Or, chafing under the handicap of a badly sprained ankle, she still goes hobbling about, resenting the impertinence of such an ankle, refusing to submit, for her prodigious activities leave her no time to waste upon illness. These activities extend far beyond the walls of Bryn Mawr College. What Miss Thomas has done for woman everywhere is inestimable. Just one thing, for example, tells the story of her all-pervasive enterprise in a nutshell — you may have forgotten it — she was one of the most powerful influences in obtaining for Johns Hopkins Medical School, in 1893, its endowment of $500,000 upon the agreement that women be admitted to its scholarship on equal terms with men. That is a type of the sort of thing Miss Thomas is always doing.

MARVELS OF MODERN SURGERY

THE SWIFT ADVANCE FROM THE CRUDE METHODS OF A GENERATION AGO TO THE INFINITELY DELICATE, PAINLESS, AND SHOCKLESS OPERATIONS ON THE HEART, THE LUNGS, AND OTHER FORMERLY INACCESSIBLE PARTS OF THE BODY — THE DISTINGUISHED SHARE OF AMERICAN SURGEONS IN THIS DRAMA OF HEALING

BY

EDWARD PREBLE, M. D.

TWO Americans, brothers, Dr. William J. Mayo and Dr. Charles H. Mayo, have perhaps the most complete surgical "plant" in the world. They are probably the best known of all living surgeons and their methods are studied by men who come from all parts of Europe solely to see them operate. An American, Dr. George W. Crile, is probably the foremost living authority on surgical shock and on transfusion of blood. Americans created the modern art of orthopedic surgery — surgery to correct deformities — and are the most distinguished practitioners of the art. Dr. Harvey Cushing, another American, is perhaps the greatest of living brain surgeons. And an Americanized Frenchman, Dr. Alexis Carrel, working in an American laboratory, has opened the way to a revolutionary advance in medicine through the surgical treatment of diseased and worn out tissue. Such are only a few of America's contributions.

But, great as is the work that America has done in modern surgery, it is only a conspicuous part of an amazing whole. Here are some of the astonishing items: A finger that has been completely severed from the hand can be restored so that the full use of it is recovered; tissues that under old methods would be dead and useless can be revived by the application of intense heat; a wound of the heart can be sewed up as simpler wounds are sewed; a blood clot in the great artery of the lung can be removed; the bronchial tubes can be electrically lighted and cleared of dangerous obstructions; the brain can be freely *treated by surgical* means; and joints and even vital organs may be transplanted from one body to another and continue to perform their normal functions

It is appropriate that Americans should play an important part in surgery, for it is distinctly a modern art. Indeed, it owes its origin to an American discovery. It was not until that famous day in 1846, when Dr. John C. Warren, at the Massachusetts Hospital in Boston, performed the first major operation under anesthesia, that modern surgery really began. The actual founder of the science was the American dentist, Dr. William T. G. Morton, who anesthetized Dr. Warren's patient, using a secret fluid which he called "Letheon," but which, it afterward appeared, was sulphuric ether. This beneficent vapor not only relieved the patient from all suffering but permitted the surgeon to operate as long and as freely as he would.

Great as Morton's discovery was, however, surgical procedure was still far from ideal. Blood poisoning and gangrene almost inevitably set in upon the exposed wounds. Suppuration was so much the routine sequence of operations that the medical scientists of fifty years ago regarded it as essential to success. The doctors even had a phrase, "laudable pus," which expressed this conviction. The conditions that prevailed in the hospitals when Lister began his work are incredible. English surgeons operated in frock coats; Frenchmen made an operation a gala occasion, putting on dress suits. Their idea of surgical cleanliness consisted in washing their instruments in warm water. If a surgeon dropped his knife on the floor he would pick it up, wipe it on his sleeve, and

ge it into the wound again. It was
r's work, introducing antiseptic meth-
that drove gangrene and "laudable
out of the hospitals. Modern sur-
which has substituted asepsis for
epsis—the prevention of blood poison-
ather than its cure after it has gained
ınce to the wound — has made practi-
perfect the great science of hospital
lliness.

ıe thing still remained to be done.
thesia and asepsis are really gifts from
'en; surgical operations, however, are
et absolutely safe. There is one terror
still stalks about the wards; the ca-
ophe which has been somewhat vague-
ıown as "death from shock." "The
ıtion was successful, but the patient
" the lay mind has always regarded
:xpression as a somewhat grim surgical

However, it expressed a profound
tific truth. When patients die, in
of perfect aseptic conditions and
inest surgical skill, they usually die
"shock."

ıat is death from shock? The first
to formulate a comprehensive and
igible definition is one of America's
famous surgeons, Dr. George W.
, of Cleveland, O. According to Dr.
there is really no such thing as
cal shock considered as a distinct
omenon; the accident that takes place
ıe operating table is simply another
festation of one of the commonest facts
eryday experience. When we laugh
y or are frightened, or suffer any form
hysical injury, however slight, we
rgo some degree of "shock." A
ıthon runner, after the race is finished,
ffering from "shock." No baseball
:r finishes a game without experien-
the same discomfort. A barefoot boy
steps on a sharp stone and hastily
ıraws his foot is mildly "shocked."
dier whose leg is torn off by a cannon
s "shocked" on a more terrible scale.
a word, "shock" is really another
: for cerebral exhaustion. The cells
ıe brain when in its normal condition
richly stored with "energy." This
gy is not psychical, but physical; it is
ıosed of certain definitely known
ıical constituents; it is just as real as the steam in the boiler, or the electricity generated by the dynamo, or the air we breathe. The brain cells have an allotted supply; as they give it off, they lose vitality and weaken; if they give off all their energy or even abnormal quantities of it, they die. Nearly all physical and emotional phenomena make certain drafts upon this reservoir of energy. Fear and bodily injury in particular draw upon it. The amount of energy released depends upon the intensity of the fear and the severity of tissue lacerations. Your body could be sliced by a sharp razor and produce only a slight cerebral exhaustion; but tearing, crushing, and slashing make heavy demands upon this stored-up energy. Actual experiments conducted by Dr. Crile have demonstrated that bodily injury and emotional excitement, especially fear, produce identically the same injuries upon the brain. The brain of a fox that has been submitted to severe physical injury displayed, when placed under the microscope, exactly the same lesions. In both cases the brain-cells have given out large quantities of energy, released, that is, certain chemical substances indispensable to life. In both cases the brain has been "shocked".

In all surgical operations these two phenomena, fear and the wounding of tissues, are the elements that produce shock. The fear, of course, is preliminary; the long anticipation, the presence of the surgeon and the nurses, the sight of the operating theatre and the instruments, the suffocation produced by inhaling the nauseous ether. This latter experience especially agonizes the patient and makes serious demands upon the stored-up energy in the brain. Once anesthetized, however, we might suppose that the danger from the shock is over. That part induced by fear is, but now the more serious dangers appear. Every time the surgeon's knife goes in, the brain cells give up certain instalments of their energy. The anesthetic does not interfere with this exhausting process. The motor nerves which carry these impulses from the brain to the wounded areas are just as active as when we are wide awake. All that the anesthetic does is to make us insensible to pain; the physical results of the wound are just

as palpable as though we felt them. If we should anesthetize the condemned murderer before hanging, he would suffer no physical discomfort; the practical result, however, would be the same. That is all that an anesthetic does in a surgical operation. Sometimes the body, even under deep anesthesia, gives evidences of the injury to which it is being subjected. Without an anesthetic, the patient screams and writhes in his agony; under an anesthetic, the respiration grows fainter and the heart beats slower; the latter manifestations, however, are really just as expressive as the former. The experience is without pain but the effects may be severe and are frequently fatal.

Dr. Crile's new operation method undertakes to overcome both causes of surgical shock — the shock that comes from fear and the shock that results from physical injury. He calls this new method anoci-association — a new word meaning, as Dr. Crile defines it "the exclusion from the operation of all harmless association." In a recent article in the London *Lancet*, Dr. Crile describes very beautifully just what he is trying to do. He says:

> The principle of anoci-association may be illustrated by the wrecked *Titanic*. The story of the stress and the psychic strain of the survivors is known, that of the lost may be easily imagined; the future memory of this experience by the survivors may safely be predicted. Such is the result of the emotional surgical operation. Now, if a survivor of this ship had been so skilfully anesthetized in his bed just before the accident that he knew nothing of the impending disaster, and if he then had been gently carried up on the deck, lowered into a life-boat, and taken aboard the rescue ship without being allowed to awaken from his anesthesia until in bed in a comfortable stateroom — if then he had been told that he had been transferred from the sinking ship, but that he was now safe and would soon see home, this would be anoci-association.

No one single anesthetic can accomplish these several results — remove the preliminary fear and overcome the brain exhaustion resulting from the wounding of tissue. By combining three or four different drugs, Dr. Crile has apparently attained complete success. Here, for example, is the procedure adopted in abdominal operations. If possible, he keeps the patient ignorant of the fact that he is to undergo an operation — at least of the time when the operation is to take place. As though for another purpose the surgeon gives him an injection of morphine. "Under the influence of morphine," says Dr. Crile, "no one is brave, no one is a coward; one is indifferent to danger." The drug simply produces a negative state of mind; the most awful sights and suggestions do not disturb the sick man in the least. The patient is simply in a philosophic state of cheerfulness and indifference and is ready for anything. The morphine thus protects him from the effects of psychical shock. He hasn't the slightest sense of discomfort or fear when the anesthetist now approaches with the once terrifying inhalation apparatus. Dr. Crile uses nitrous oxide in preference to ether, because experiments have proved that under this drug there is only one third as much shock as under ether. He relies upon another anesthetic method, however, to secure complete protection. Under the conventional anesthetic, as already said, the wounded tissues carry their messages to the brain by means of the nerves. These nerves are just as active under ether as when we are our normal selves. A local anesthetic, however, produces insensibility to pain in the region affected, not by making us unconscious — under an application of cocaine we are completely awake — but because it interrupts the flow of sensation by means of the nerves. Under these conditions the tissues suffer like a besieged army. The enemy has captured them and is inflicting all kinds of injury and suffering. He has also cut the cables, so that the injured city cannot telegraph to headquarters — the brain — for aid; that is, for a supply of stored-up energy. In this case the patient suffers no pain, not even unconscious pain. The operation proceeds for any length of time. It usually is a success and the patient does *not* die.

In other words, Dr. Crile's experiments seem to have ushered in a new era of surgery — the era of the "shockless operation." At the Lakeside Hospital in Cleveland Dr. Crile has performed 2,672

itions with a death rate of less than 2
ent. In the last 1,000 of these cases
leath rate was less than 1 per cent.
other improvement in operating con-
ns has saved many lives. This con-
in the use of "laughing gas" and other
hetics milder than chloroform or ether
oduce the first stages of unconscious-
This eliminates certain objection-
depressing effects upon the bodily
erature and upon the circulation of
blood caused by the more powerful
s. In the administration of ether,
J. T. Gwathmey, of New York, has
ght about two remarkable improve-
s; one, the warming of ether vapor
ard against bronchitis and excessive
ing of the body temperature; the
the combining of ether vapor with
atic essences — such as essence of
ge — that rob the ether of its nausea-
qualities and that do much to check the
ting which usually follows its use.
. R. H. M. Dawbarn, a distinguished
on of New York City, has attacked
roblem of shock from another angle.
as perfected a method of reducing the
f blood that is incident to most opera-
. Some authorities believe that the
of a few extra ounces of blood may
the scales of life and death against
ient who has been exposed to severe
cal shock. Dr. Dawbarn has adapted
narch's bandage" to a novel and very
l purpose. Esmarch's bandage is an
levice of a German surgeon to force
lood in the legs upward into the trunk
amputation is necessary. Dr. Daw-
has carried this method to a more use-
urpose by applying the bandage still
r on the body and so reversing its
upon the circulation. By this
od the blood is largely withdrawn
the arms and the trunk and is forced
ward into the lower limbs, insuring a
num loss of blood in operations upon
runk. Contemporaneously with Dr.
barn, Dr. Momburg, a German, ap-
the bandage to the waist, thus shut-
off the blood supply below that level.
all the body but the head and neck
hus be rendered bloodless.
ock has been attacked from still
ner quarter by a number of other surgeons, led by Dr. F. Pels-Leusden, professor of surgery in Griefswald University. For many years the deaths which result from severe burns were attributed to shock. Such burns are among the commonest accidents that befall workmen, and their treatment has been a grave problem with the medical profession. Women and children, too, because of the flimsy and inflammable character of their clothing, very often are victims of such burns. Longfellow's first wife was one of a long roll of women who have died in this way.

Dr. Pels-Leusden made some researches upon the theory that these burns produced other injurious effects in addition to the shock to the nervous system. His theory was that the sudden destruction of the skin generated a violent poison which was absorbed by the blood and this played a leading part in causing death. He tried experiments in which he inserted portions of freshly-burned skin into the flesh of animals where they would be rapidly absorbed. These animals at once presented the symptoms that they would have shown if their own skin had been burned.

This discovery seems likely to revolutionize the surgical treatment of burns. Instead of merely applying germicides and excluding the air by soothing oils and powders, surgeons now place the patient at once under an anesthetic and scrape away all the burned tissue. The exposed surface is then dressed with absorbent cotton to take up the discharges, and the heart and kidneys are stimulated to throw off whatever poison has been absorbed before the operation could be performed.

Another radical alteration of theory has brought about possibilities in surgery that would have seemed fantastical only a few years ago. The theory concerns the cause of inflammation; the results are such startling operations as the successful restoration of a completely severed finger and such a perfectly feasible possibility as the transplantation of a finger or even certain organs, like the arteries and veins, from one person's body to another's. The old theory was that inflammation was caused by a "rush of blood" to the inflamed part, and surgeons treated it by blood-letting and cold packs to reduce the

supposed quantity and activity of the blood. But Professor A. Bier, of the University of Berlin, perhaps the foremost surgeon of Europe, held exactly the contrary theory. To his mind inflammation was an indication of stagnation. Naturally, therefore, the way to treat it was to stimulate the activity of the circulation. Another European surgeon, Dr. Jean Schaeffer, professor of diseases of the skin at the University of Breslau, originated the most practicable device for producing this stimulating effect. He applied intense heat, in the form of superheated dry air, to the surface above the inflammation. Astonishing results were achieved. Circulation was reëstablished, and even tissues that before would have been described as dead beyond all human aid were restored to the normal function of life. This principle has made possible the operation to restore severed fingers, an operation that has now been successfully performed repeatedly.

One of the most startling surgical innovations of recent years is a new method of removing tumors from the base of the brain. It has long been known that these tumors are a deadly menace. They press upon nerve centres that control some of the most important organs of the body and thus, for example, they often times cause blindness. More remarkable yet, they cause most extraordinary eccentricities in the structure of the entire body. This is because they usually originate in a small organ below the brain — known as the pituitary body. This structure, no larger than a pea, has some obscure but powerfully controlling effect upon the development of the body. If enlarged and active, it causes gigantism — a state which only in recent years has been recognized as a disease. These tumors sometimes so disarrange the functions of this organ that its restraining effect upon growth is removed, and the patient continues to grow in stature and bulk beyond all normal proportions. For example, in a recent case in Philadelphia, a boy of fifteen had attained a height of 6 feet 7 inches and showed no signs of abating his extraordinary development.

Of course, an operation to remove such a tumor is infinitely delicate. Cushing, another American, is the world's greatest operator of the pituitary body. Dr. S. the University of Prague, or method of attack, that is as it is bold. Instead of appr tumor from the side of the is difficult and disfiguring, directly through the front dividing the soft tissues and the nose and, turning them b could be replaced without disfi laid open a clear field for direct the bone which covers the t bone is easily removed and the out. This striking operation performed, with satisfactory r

America has perhaps fu great brain surgeons. Dr. New York, who died a few originated several technical ad gave him world-wide fame, i cure of neuralgia by removing organ within the skull wh it. And Dr. Harvey Cushing the foremost specialist in br now living. Surgeons everyw him for the newest advances methods and for improvement

Probably the most daring modern surgery is that whic operations on the heart. "T the heart is only two or three i but it has taken surgery n years to traverse it," is one wi ing remark. How recent this made plain from the fact th published by Stephen Paget in tained a chapter on "Surgery of — the words being contempt closed in quotation marks. Th as well as the layman, looked heart with an almost superst Any injury necessarily implied interference with such an injury hasten the end. Yet many s servers in the course of the ages that all heart wounds did no instantaneous death.

It was not until ten or fifteen that surgeons began to act knowledge. In exceptional ca did not result immediately fro

wound; there were intervals of a few minutes, a few days, or a few weeks. Why not utilize this interval in an attempt to sew up the wound? Medical history now reports many successful operations of this kind. An especially noteworthy one, performed upon an Alabama Negro boy in 1902, illustrates the resources of modern heart surgery. This boy had been the victim of an especially nasty stab wound. The knife had penetrated the apex of the heart and passed into the left ventricle, making a wound nearly half an inch long. When the boy was placed on the operating table, in a little Negro cabin, the signs of death had already appeared. His feet were cold, and his face showed signs of the utmost distress. The surgeons made a little window-like opening just above the heart. Through this they could readily see the injured organ, the blood spurting from the wound at every pulsation. One surgeon put in his hand, pulled the heart upward, and held it while another sewed the wound with a catgut. The operation — performed without an anesthetic — lasted fifty-five minutes; on the sixteenth day the boy was sitting up; in a short time his heart was as good as new. There are scores of other similar cases. There is a policeman in an Ohio town now lustily going his rounds who, a few years ago, had a murderous knife plunged through the apex of his heart. Such operations, of course, frequently fail; they succeed often enough, however, to make the attempt worth while.

But more remarkable even than operations on the heart is the operation that was first attempted by Dr. F. Trendelenburg, formerly professor of surgery of the University of Leipsig. The great pulmonary artery, which carries the blood from the heart to the lungs to give them their indispensable supply of oxygen — indispensable for even a few moments — sometimes is suddenly obstructed by a clot of blood that quickly increases in size until it cuts off the flow entirely and causes death by suffocation. Dr. Trendelenburg, to relieve such a condition, undertook probably the most venturesome of all emergency procedures — he removed this clot with the knife and prolonged life for hours. Again "the operation was successful but the patient died." But this technical success, and the similar success of other surgeons with this method, make it a safe prediction that this operation will become a practicable weapon in the surgeons' battle to save human lives.

Surgery of the chest has opened another possibility that would have been derided as out of the question a few years ago. This is the removal of obstructions in the bronchial tube by surgical means. Nearly everybody in childhood has had the experience in a mild form of "sucking something down his windpipe." Severer experiences of this sort nearly always result in death or chronic invalidism. Dr. G. Killian, professor of diseases of the nose and throat in the University of Berlin, has perfected a device that relieves a large proportion of these severe cases. It is simply a method of electric lighting applied to the bronchial tubes by means of the "bronchoscope." The patient is put under an anesthetic and is laid on his back with his head hanging down. The bronchoscope illuminates the passages so successfully that tacks, horseshoe nails, and fragments of bones have been found and removed even from the third branch of the bronchial tree, by the use of delicate instruments.

Another and more dangerous, though sometimes the only possible, and occasionally successful, method now employed for this same purpose is purely surgical. The x-ray is used to determine the position of the object, and then a window in the chest wall is cut, the lung tissue is severed until the bronchial tube is exposed, and the tube is slit open and the object removed. Strangely enough, this operation, which has repeatedly defied the skill of city surgeons with every facility of modern hospitals, has once been performed successfully by a "country doctor." Dr. Francis A. Goeltz, then (1907) a surgeon of Erie, Pa., removed a laundryman's metal collar button from the bronchial tube of a six-year-old boy by thus cutting through the chest wall, and saved the boy's life.

One difficulty, however, has always stood in the way of chest surgery. This

part of the body has always been inaccessible. Surgeons could open the other cavities of the body, the head, and the abdomen, with practical impunity; the thoracic region, however, was almost entirely inaccessible to them. The trouble is that the air pressure in the lungs is lower than that of the outside air. When the chest is opened, air rushes in, the lungs collapse, and the patient dies. When only one side is opened and only one lung collapses, operations are occasionally performed; the exposure of both sides, however, usually ends fatally. Operators, in Europe and America, have devised many remarkable pressure cabinets to overcome this difficulty, but these contrivances are not entirely satisfactory. It remained for Dr. Samuel J. Meltzer, of the Rockefeller Institute, to devise a method that is simple, convenient, and almost uniformly successful. This method is known as "intratracheal insufflation"— that is the blowing of air into the trachea, or the windpipe. Briefly, Dr. Meltzer introduces a tube into the windpipe; into this he pumps air and distends the lungs. This method keeps the air in the lungs at the same pressure as the outside atmosphere, so that the chest can be opened wide without any danger of collapse. The fresh air enters the lungs through the tube and the vitiated air leaves through the narrow space left between the tube and the walls of the windpipe. The patient does not breathe at all; in place of the usual respiratory movements the operator simply pumps air into the lungs, which can remain distended for five or six hours. As a practical result, the surgeon now has access to the body's last unexplored field. We shall probably hear wonderful stories of thoracic surgery in the next few years.

Though the abdomen has long been "the surgeon's playground," several new and startling operations have been developed in this region. For example, Dr. W. Arbuthnot Lane, one of the most distinguished of British surgeons, has recognized in the familiar type of person with a characteristic "sinking of the stomach" a subject for surgical relief. This curious and common type of ailment, *that causes much* and varied misery, he ascribes to the constant downward pull of the large intestine that draws with it the stomach and small bowel. Ultimately, nature seeks to prevent this strain by forming reinforcements of the supporting bands of tissue that normally hold these organs up. But these reinforcing bands cause new troubles; they cause "kinks" in the intestines that produce constipation and self-poisoning from the decaying food that is delayed in its natural course. Dr. Lane has proved that it is practicable to correct these faults by loosening the "strangle hold" of the secondary bands by surgery. With other surgeons he has cured similar ills by removing bodily a considerable part, or even all, of the large intestine, leaving the small intestine spliced to the stump, and thus cutting out the portion in which stagnation occurs.

More important work in this region — indeed, some of the most significantly successful surgery of the day — has been done by Dr. William J. Mayo, of Rochester, Minn. Dr. Mayo has been able to cure in its early stages about 60 per cent. of his cases of elementary cancer of the stomach and intestines by surgical means. This is an epoch-marking achievement in the control of a hitherto incurable disease that already causes 5 per cent. of all deaths and that is rapidly increasing in prevalence.

But probably the most sensational of all modern advances in surgery goes beyond the mere "tinkering" with the body — successful and revolutionary as this work of cutting and rearranging has been. It goes outside the body of the patient for relief, and brings to his assistance, to replace diseased or worn-out tissues, fresh and vital tissues from other bodies. To take first the simplest of these transplantations, the work of Dr. John Staige Davis, of Johns Hopkins University, in skin grafting opened a new epoch in surgery. He demonstrated the possibility — now commonly applied — of taking a whole flap of skin from another person, or from an amputated arm or leg, or even from a corpse soon after death, and engrafting it to replace skin that had been burned or otherwise violently destroyed.

Prof. E. Lexer, of the University of

Jena, applied the same principle in a more striking and useful way. Patients who suffered from tuberculous joints were formerly accounted fortunate if, by drastic surgical treatment, the tuberculous infection was kept from spreading, even at the cost of a permanently crippled limb. But Dr. Lexer removed the infected joints bodily and substituted healthy joints from amputated limbs — in some cases even from storage specimens — and brought about complete recovery with a supple joint and a natural use of the member.

And Dr. Alexis Carrel, of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, succeeded, in animal experiments, in replacing an entire segment of a limb — even a vital organ, the kidney — with corresponding parts from other bodies. These achievements represent the highest of all technical surgical skill, for they require that every blood vessel and duct be joined and sewed with perfect precision so that no narrowing of their channels or roughening of their tissues shall be caused. For sheer manual dexterity probably no human work of the hands has ever equalled these amazing performances by Dr. Carrel.

But, aside from the proof they offer of the possibilities that lie in technical operating skill, these transplantations are immensely important to all surgery. The parts that Dr. Carrel used for his experiments were not freshly taken from living bodies or from recent corpses or even from brief cold storage. They had been kept in storage for months — some of them for six months — in a state of suspended animation. During all this time they retained their full vitality as well as if they had still been connected with the blood system of their original living bodies. The practical surgical value of this achievement lies in the possibility, which seems proved, of filling a storage warehouse with healthy organs and limbs and joints from the bodies of the dead and of utilizing this supply as it is needed to relieve the injuries and deformities of the living.

Altogether, then, surgery has made a marvelous advance in the last twenty— even the last five — years. It has explored the remotest regions of the body and carried a healing power to every part. It has even crossed the line between life and death, and brought back from the farther side the means of alleviation and recovery. And there is every reason to hope that in the future it may yield other discoveries as beneficent as those that have been made in the past.

WORKADAY WIRELESS

THE REMARKABLE INCREASE IN ITS USE IN INDUSTRY AND IN COMMERCE — SPANNING THE ATLANTIC DAILY FROM NOVA SCOTIA TO GREAT BRITAIN — A CHAIN OF WIRELESS STATIONS TO ENCIRCLE THE GLOBE

IT WAS "eight bells "on a ship lying at anchor down in the Gulf of Mexico. The men had retired for the night to their bunks and hammocks, and the wireless operator, alone in his watchfulness, was "listening in" at his head 'phones.

Suddenly, out of the pitchy darkness of the sea, a message that curdled the blood in his veins leaped down the antenna and hummed its fearful content: *S.O.S.— S.O.S.— S.O.S.* And a few minutes later, in response to the customary reply, *What is your position?* the answer flashed back: 125° 27′ 37″ *West* 47° 33′ 10″ *North.*

That meant that out on the Pacific Ocean, 140 miles west of Seattle, Wash., — 2,850 miles away — a vessel was calling for help.

The call of the Pacific! The operator hardly believed it. With tremulous fingers he repeated the call to the station nearest to the vessel in distress. But already the wireless watchers along the western coast had caught the message, and relief was on its way. Clear across the entire North

American continent, over land and sea and mountain ranges, the ship's cry had been heard.

Such is the range of wireless to-day. Nor is it the greatest distance at which messages can be transmitted. Recently, a message was sent from Clifden, Ireland, to Buenos Aires — a distance of approximately 5,800 miles. Of course, the atmospheric elements have much to do with the retarding or the accelerating of the wave currents. For this reason the night time — when the sun's rays are not encountered — is the most favorable time for the sending of messages.

But by night and day, under all conditions of weather, regular daily communication has been established between the high-powered stations at Glace Bay, Nova Scotia, and Clifden, Ireland, and Poldhu, in Cornwall, England; between Nauen, Germany, and Togo, in Africa; and between Coltano, in Italy, and Massaua, in East Africa— a distance of 2,238 nautical miles. And the United States Government has recently proved the value and utility of its three long-distance towers at Arlington, Va., by maintaining constant communication with the battleship *Salem* as it sailed eastward to the African coast on an experimental voyage.

These are merely a few of the more striking achievements of present-day wireless. But what else is being done to harness this one-time toy curiosity of the scientist's laboratory to the workaday uses of the world? So great has become the volume of daily transatlantic business that along the coast of New Jersey, at New Brunswick and at Belmar, thirteen towers — trestle-like giants that rise 435 feet into the air — are being rushed to completion to fill its demands. This thirteen-tower station is but one link of a chain of seven that will ultimately encircle the globe — from London to New Jersey, from San Francisco to Honolulu, from Honolulu to Yokohama, from Yokohama to India, from India to Egypt, and from Egypt back to London. When this chain is completed, therefore, it will be possible, since wireless leaps over mountain ranges and can overcome the atmospheric elements, to relay a message around the world.

The stations are being built duplex — that is, the transmitting and receiving stations are located some distance from each other — and with a definite directional relation, so that signals can be received and transmitted at the same time, which obviates shutting down the transmitting apparatus while receiving from another station. Although the stations at Belmar and at New Brunswick are twenty or more miles apart, the operating will be done at the receiving station by use of a telegraph line working, through an automatic relay, the main high-power transmitting keys at the sending stations. Constant service will be maintained day and night, and high-speed automatic transmitters with a capacity of from sixty to eighty words a minute will be used. The receiving will also be done automatically by photographing the received wave on a sensitized paper strip, thus affording a permanent record of all messages. In California the transmitting station will be at Bolinas Point, just north of San Francisco, with its receiving station at Tomales Bay, about twenty-five miles farther north. At Honolulu the transmitting station will be at the northern end of the Island of Oahu, and its receiving station at the southern end. The towers of the New Jersey station will contain more than 2,000 tons of steel and will require 93 miles of wire rope rigging. Their antennæ will require 82 miles of wire and the "grounding" another 126 miles — 208 miles of wire in all. Thirty men — in two shifts — will operate the station. On May 2d the Government opened bids for the construction of three 600-foot towers to be built at Caimito, in the Canal Zone. This station will be able to communicate with high-powered stations in Guam and Samoa. One of the highest wireless towers in the world is that of the Goldschmidt station near Tuckerton, N. J., more than 600 feet high, now been completed.

Another evidence of the settled demand for wireless in the practical world is the constantly increasing number of land stations. The latest report of the International Bureau of Wireless Telegraphy says that there are 2,354 stations. There are 375 public

wireless coast stations. Of this number the United States leads, with 142; Great Britain is second, with 76, 33 of which are located in Canada; Germany takes third place, with 22; Italy has 19; Russia, 19; France, 17; Spain, 10, and Denmark, 9; other countries, 61.

During the first four months of this year the Bureau of Navigation issued 3,407 licenses to wireless operators, 1,185 of whom were amateurs, leaving more than 2,200 operators to man the American merchant vessels of the sea.

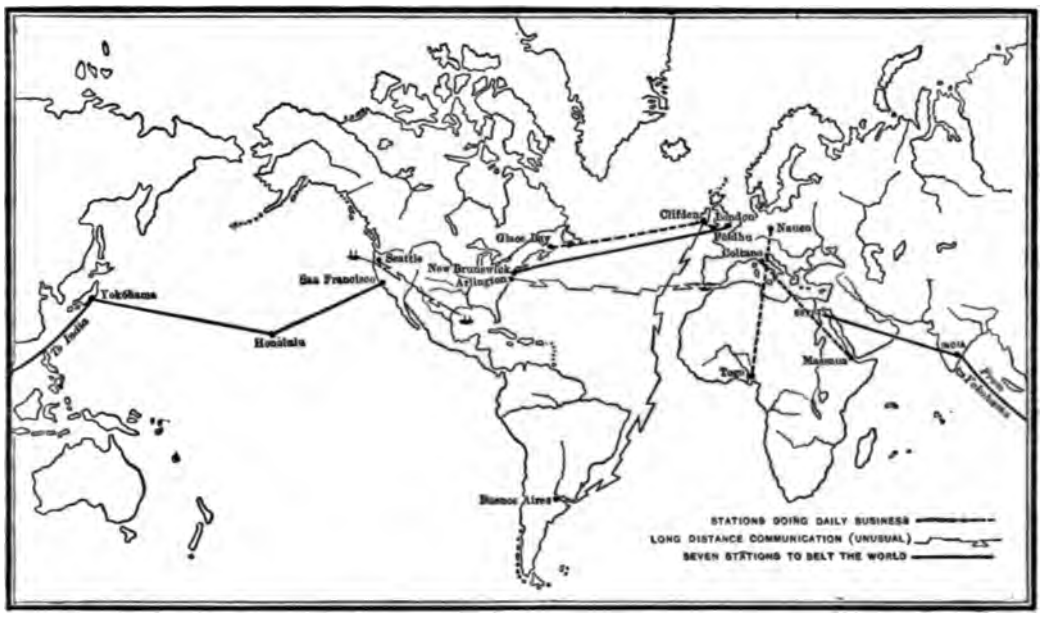
Of the 950 stations on board war vessels, the United States leads, with 247; Great Britain has 213; France, 141; Germany, 112; Italy, 77; Japan, 70; and Russia, 70; other countries, 20.

In the merchant marine Great Britain leads, with 455 stations; the American flag flies over 253; Germany has 206; France, 68, and Italy, 47.

And these figures have probably increased since the report of the Bureau of Wireless Telegraphy was issued.

In 1905, the year in which it can be said practically that wireless telegraphy came into being as a commercial industry, the traffic receipts of one of the principal wireless companies were $18,358. In 1912 these had increased to $109,943. In that year this one company transmitted 227,944 messages, comprising 3,863,098 words.

Yet another evidence of the demand of the practical every-day world for wireless is the growth of the number of schools for the training of operators. Schools of wireless telegraphy on this side of the Atlantic have been established in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, Cleveland, San Francisco, Seattle, and elsewhere. After the students have spent from five to eight months in the schools and have learned to send thirty or more words a minute, they are sent to the nearest United States Navy Yard for their license examination, and are then placed on ships as assistant operators. The pay, including berths and meals, varies from $30 to $60 a month.



THE WIRELESS STATIONS THAT WILL SOON BELT THE WORLD

In the commercial world a new means of efficient communication is at hand; on thousands of vessels a new security is felt; in the steadily spreading use of wireless a laboratory toy has been adapted to the workaday needs of men; and industry has harnessed the unseen wings of the air to make more swift and easy its beneficent routine. It has come to stay, this business of wireless telegraphy.

THE MARCH OF THE CITIES

HOW THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF HAMILTON, O., MET A GREAT EMI

BY

LEO L. REDDING

HAMILTON, O., is putting $300,000 into a high school building, $250,000 into a city hall, and $175,000 into a Y. M. C. A. building.

Hamilton is the city that was supposed to have suffered most heavily from the flood of last March which cut the city in twain; turned its well-paved streets into debris-choked chasms; spread a sheet of mud and clay three feet deep over everything; tore four great bridges from their moorings and twisted them into a tangle of steel and wood; swept 335 houses away; wrought heavy damages upon 5,000 homes and business houses, and destroyed 230 lives. That flood cost Hamilton $10,000,000. And yet there are those — optimists, to be sure — who believe that except for the human sacrifice it was worth the price exacted.

Hamilton has found itself.

Its principal business thoroughfares ring with sounds of industrious hammers in the hands of workmen who are rushing to completion scores of new store buildings. Three factories are being constructed and others are planned for the near future.

In its extremity, when the waters swept upon it in a succession of wreck-crested waves, Hamilton for a moment was without government within itself. Then the value of an earnest and thoroughly organized Chamber of Commerce was made evident. Men who were accustomed to self-control and self-discipline had no difficulty in bringing into instant existence a provisional government that was capable of handling the situation. The Hamilton Chamber of Commerce has its headquarters in the Rentschler Building, one of the town's largest office structures. In these headquarters were half a dozen of the leading business men of the city when the first great rush of waters came on Ma and there they remained until t began its ebb late the next after

The first man to enter the R Building as the waters began t was Police Inspector J. H. de who reported that the mayor coul found and that the police ch believed to be drowned.

At this report Mr. S. D. Fitton, p of the Chamber of Commerc an immediate meeting of all t present in the building, and a pr city government was forthwith f

The first move made by the formed provisional government rescue those in danger and to af tection to those left homele Charles E. Mason, vice-presider Chamber of Commerce, was m of the Commissary Department into immediate communication w Hunt, of Cincinnati, using the that was left standing by the w in less than four hours after the p government was formed twenty-f trucks were plowing through choked roads between Cincin Hamilton, every one carrying a of food, clothing, and medici for four days Mr. Mason's brea in constant service, and for a w his emergency storehouses were main source of supply.

Mr. E. G. Ruder, treasure Industrial Fund of the Chambe merce and one of the best know of southern Ohio, took upon hi mournful duties of keeper of th and also the duties of chief of th organized hospital which was e in the County Court House. M provided temporary interment f bodies during the week of his

olding. And scores of persons owe es to the care given to them by him assistants at the hospital.

G. S. Rentschler and Mr. Ben , both influential members of the er of Commerce, organized and l a volunteer force of fifty guards- ho for three days and three nights without sleep patrolled the water- ty, giving aid where it was needed venting acts of lawlessness by those re degenerate enough to wish to vantage of the city's distress.

George T. Reiss, a former president Chamber of Commerce, and Mr. Goodman, a director of that body, l responsibility for reëstablishing 's public works. Mr. L. P. Claw- asurer of the Chamber of Com- became general treasurer of the nd and saw to it that assistance denied to any person needing it.

a committee of thirty with an e committee of six, with Mr. James n, one of the most active members Chamber of Commerce, as general n, was brought into existence. To anization the provisional govern- rned over the control of the city.

moment was lost. Forty thou- amiltonians came out from their places of refuge and began the rebuilding. The flood had divided into two parts, but as the waters forces were again joined and it was rmy of forty regiments all working mon purpose.

the exception of the single line that d Hamilton with Cincinnati, not a h or telephone wire was serviceable. r great bridges of which the city sted were no more than four piles s. The railroads were gone; there gas, no electric light, no water fit an use, and little food except that as rushed in to Hamilton by the rom Cincinnati.

rst practical work of reconstruction temporary repair of three of the bridges. Then came quick re- hich made it possible to reconnect er hydrants, and after the pipes n thoroughly washed out an ade- ater supply was provided. Next came the restoration of gas and electricity, and finally the entire city took to the streets and began clearing away the mud and litter. Such quick action prevented all danger of epidemic and the public health remained surprisingly good.

Those men who had so quickly and so properly organized a provisional government subscribed to a guarantee fund extending credit to those who needed it, thus making it possible for business men who otherwise would have been crippled to make a quick new start.

There was no thought in the mind of any man, apparently, of permitting Hamilton to falter in its progress. Previous to the flood, arrangements had been made for the building of a new high school structure, a new City Hall, and a new Y. M. C. A. building. Instead of halting that work, cash was immediately provided, and the three great buildings were begun at once, so as to give employment to those persons who otherwise might have remained idle.

The flood came on March 25th. By the 9th of April — and by actual count — extensive repairs were being made on 419 of the half-destroyed buildings in the city. Financial aid was given to those who needed it and who deserved it.

None of the manufacturing enterprises of the city has been destroyed and, indeed, since the flood Hamilton more than ever has come to be regarded as one of the best manufacturing towns of its size in the entire country.

Mr. Fitton and his associates would have considered their work not well done had they completed it without effort to prevent a repetition of the disaster to their city. The Hamilton Chamber of Commerce has taken the lead in the organization of an association of counties, the purpose of which is to canalize the Great Miami River from source to mouth. This work is to be begun before the end of the present year, and in a very short time the river will be stripped of its power to work injury to life and property.

Thus the habit of coöperation that had been developed by the Chamber of Commerce was an invaluable asset of whole community in a great emer

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ABOUT FARM LANDS

102.—*Q.* I have an opportunity to go on 113 acres of irrigated land in the San Luis Valley, Colorado, from which I may have all the first year's crops and where money will be advanced to see me through the first season. I can take one son of 23 with me, and one of 16 just finishing high school could join us later. My salary of $60 per month doesn't enable me to do all I want to for my family. Do you think I would be foolish to try the farm?

A. A good irrigated farm of that size would be a pretty poor one if it did not return better than $60 a month profit, *under good management.* But are you wholly satisfied as to the water supply on the place, the condition of the land, the desirability of the location, the certainty of markets and, especially, your ability to run it? And does such a life appeal to you and your family? Any one who goes to a farm under protest, with a preconceived dislike for it, or merely desiring to better his condition without knowing anything about farm work, will probably find the city more to his liking at an even smaller salary than yours. The San Luis Valley, in general, is all right; the question is as to this particular farm and as to *you* as a farmer.

103.—*Q.* Please give me information regarding orchard land in the Twin Falls district of the Spokane Valley, Idaho, offered for $500 an acre under a contract to plant and deliver a four-year-old, well-cared-for orchard. The advantage is that I could continue in my present position during the unproductive years, and have the land about half paid for on taking possession. Would you advise me to try it, or to buy and develop raw, cheaper land, myself?

A. Much depends on the reputation and stability of the company offering the land. The advantage you mention is apparent, but remember that at the end of the time you *may* get just the sort of orchard you want or you may not; and then you will have lost four years during which you might have been familiarizing yourself with the locality, the land, the markets, and the trees, and building a foundation for future success by giving personal attention to the farm.

The locality is a splendid one for fruit-raising. The soil is of volcanic origin, strong and fertile, especially under irrigation. Water for this *purpose is abundant* although the rainfall is sufficient for ordinary results. The price seems quite fair for an established orchard; nevertheless, when a sound farming proposition rather than a business speculation is wanted, we are invariably in favor of the development of property by the resident purchaser.

104.—*Q.* In regard to dairy farming in northern Wisconsin or Minnesota, would you advise beginning on new land — needing clearing and breaking — or on an old, cultivated farm? My capital will not permit very extensive operations in either case. Do you think well of the general locality?

A. Answering your last question first, there are excellent opportunities as regards natural conditions, as well as markets and means of transportation. For persons with limited capital the scrubby timber and logged-off land usually offers the greatest inducements. But there are two sides to this question. If you have sufficient ability and experience to run a dairy farm you can afford to sink most of your capital in a well developed farm and established concern that will begin to give returns at once — if you can find such a farm for sale. If you are not experienced, you had better buy rough land and a few cows, work up a business gradually, and keep a larger part of your cash for running expenses until you gain knowledge and get well on your feet.

105.—*Q.* What is the character of the lands and the climate in Wasatch County, Utah?

A. At Duchesne the average annual rainfall is 9.9 inches, the average annual temperature 44.6 degrees F., and the recorded range from 107 degrees above to 38 degrees below zero. Data as to the land are scant but we find the statement that "the northeast corner of the state (which includes Wasatch County) is filled with high mountains covered with trees and nutritious grasses." The latter renders grazing possible, but agriculture is not extensively developed, as only 5 per cent. of the land is in farms. About 15,000 acres are in tame grasses, 9,591 acres in alfalfa, 4,648 acres in oats, and 3,643 acres in wheat, of which the last three are probably grown under irrigation. Commissioner of Agriculture H. T. Haines, at Salt Lake City, and the Agricultural College, at Logan, may be able to give you other details.

The World's Work

ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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THE
WORLD'S WORK

OCTOBER, 1913

UME XXVI NUMBER 6

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

RETRIBUTION has come upon the New Haven Railroad for its attempt to monopolize all the transportation agencies in New England. A terrible ; of wrecks, culminating in the rear- collision at North Haven, Conn., ı killed more than twenty people, mplete evidence that in equipment n management this road has not lived ɔ the ever increasing demands that ıade upon it. It is in need of new :ostly equipment. In financial centres e feel (in the words of the *Wall ' Journal*) that "the underlying cause ıability to handle an enormous pres- of business without accident is the nued assaults upon credit by politi- and notoriety seekers, which makes aising of new capital for necessary sions almost an impossibility."

t the cause of the New Haven's ma lies far deeper than the hostility oliticians. The New Haven had ed" all the new capital that it needed crease its facilities and to make its tion safe. But it spent the money rolley lines and steamships. The :ors of the road used its credit to lish a far reaching monopoly. The New Haven was managed as a financial institution, not altogether as a railroad.

Its situation is not only distressing to New England, but it shows to the whole country that even with the great improvement in railroad methods, and with the increased activity and power of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the state commissions, it is possible for a great system, serving a thickly settled and prosperous manufacturing community, to fail in its primary purpose — to give safe and efficient service.

The wiser railroad men confine their energies to operating their roads, and in this growing country this task affords a wide enough scope for even the most constructive genius. Excursions into other fields have not proved successful. Railroad meddling in politics was a boomerang that produced a violent anti-railroad feeling that expressed itself in legislation which contained as much anger as wisdom.

Railroad excursions into monopoly and high finance have wrecked many a road in the past, and even under Mr. Harriman's leadership such practices have not proved a lasting success. We should not need any more examples to prove that railroads should stick to the railroad business.

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MR. FRANCIS BURTON HARRISON

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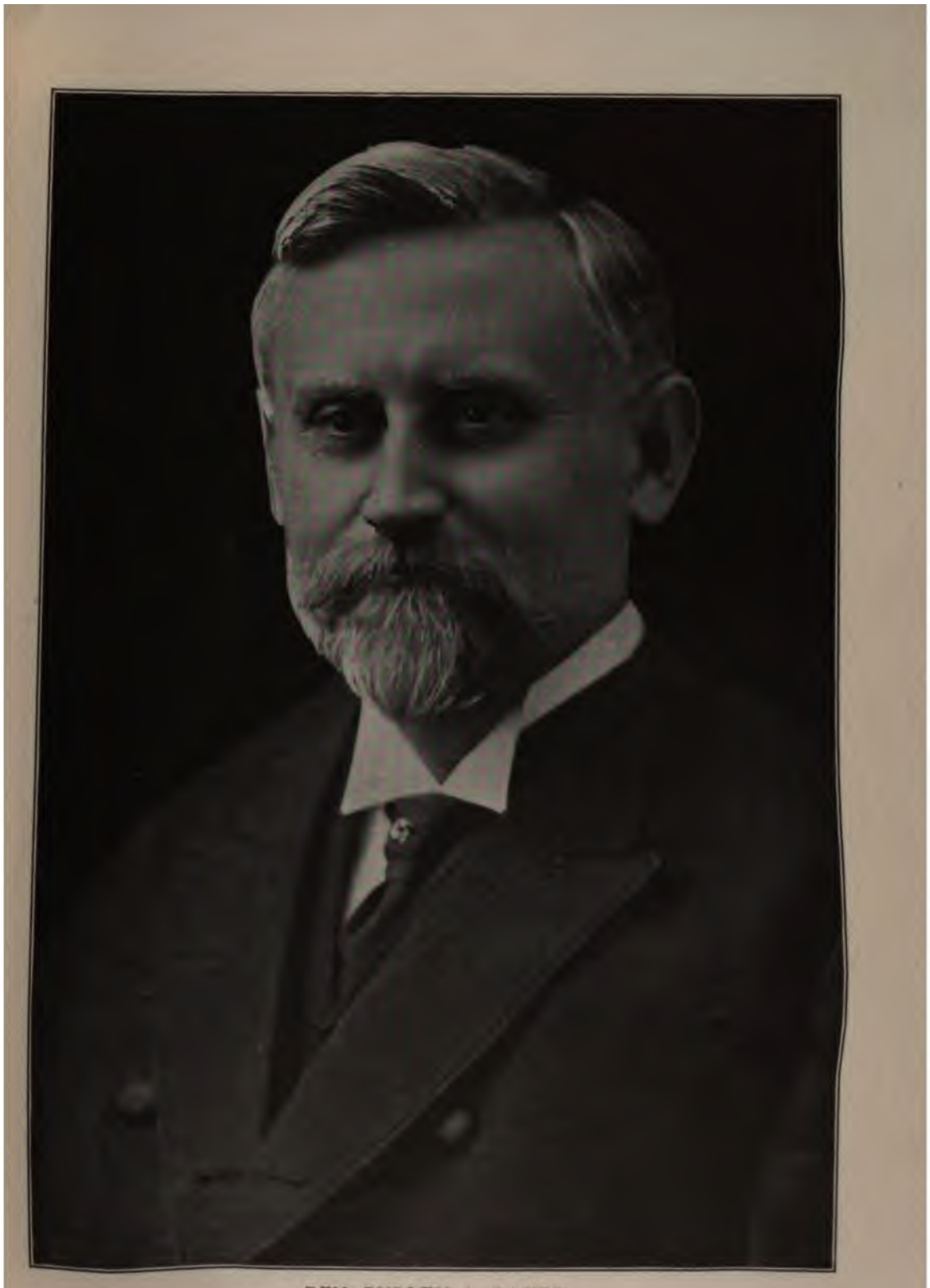
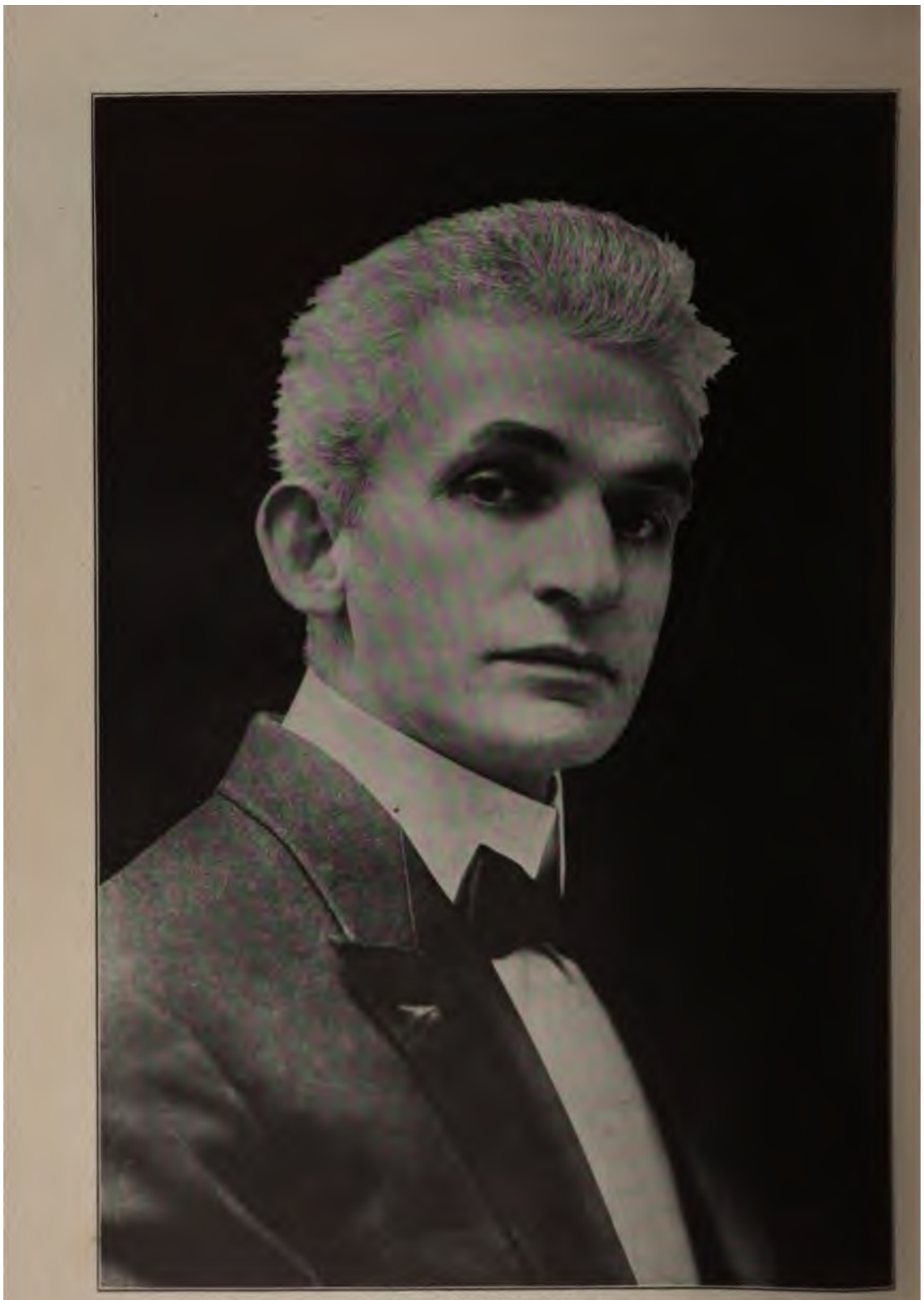
THE FIRST GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF THE PHILIPPINES UNDER A DEMOCRATIC
TRATION, WHO HAS GIVEN UP HIS SEAT IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES TO
HIS NEW DUTIES



REV. PURLEY A. BAKER

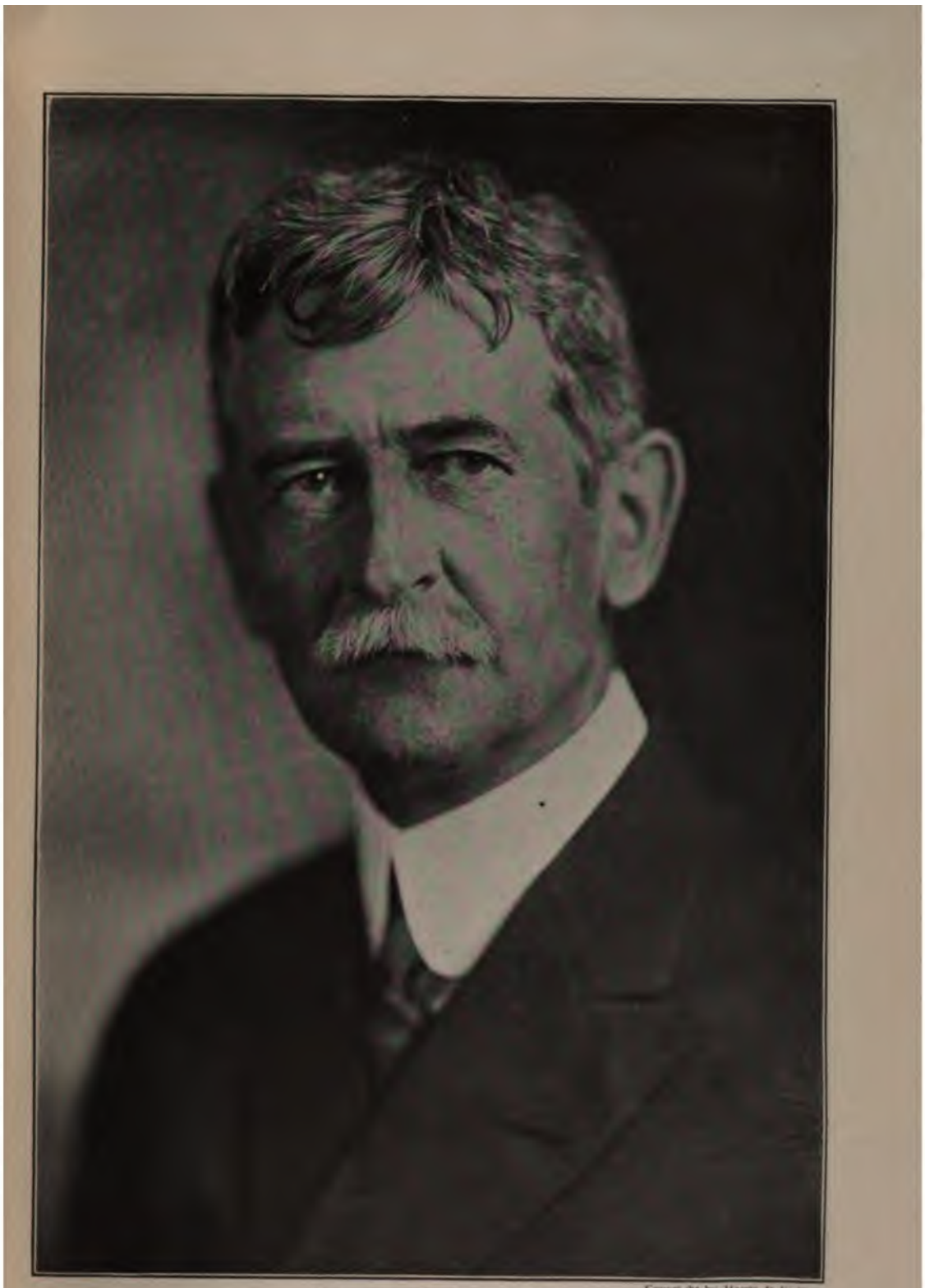
GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT OF THE ANTI-SALOON LEAGUE OF AMERICA, WHICH IN THE LAST TWELVE YEARS HAS MADE NEARLY THREE FOURTHS OF THE AREA OF THE UNITED STATES PROHIBITION TERRITORY AND HAS PUT MORE THAN HALF THE PEOPLE OF THE COUNTRY OUTSIDE THE INFLUENCE OF SALOONS

(See Page 701)



MR. MILTON ABORN

DIRECTOR OF THE CENTURY OPERA COMPANY WHICH, WITH THE AID OF SUBSCRIPTIONS OF THE CITY CLUB AND OF PRIVATE CITIZENS OF NEW YORK, IS GIVING A SEASON OF GRAND OPERA IN ENGLISH AT POPULAR PRICES



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MR. HENRY E. MILES

PRESIDENT OF THE WISCONSIN BOARD OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION WHICH HAS STARTED VOCATIONAL CONTINUATION SCHOOLS THAT ARE TRAINING 25,000 BOYS AND GIRLS WHOM THE REGULAR DAY SCHOOLS DO NOT REACH

(See Page 660)

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MR. JOSEPH JOHNSON

FIRE COMMISSIONER OF NEW YORK CITY, WHO DISCOVERED THAT AT LEAST ONE FOURTH OF NEW YORK'S YEARLY FIRE LOSS OF 9 MILLION DOLLARS WAS CAUSED BY *INCENDIARIES*, AND WHO REDUCED THIS LOSS APPROXIMATELY 50 PER CENT. BY A CAMPAIGN OF FIRE PREVENTION THROUGH INSPECTION AND PUBLICITY [See "The March of Events"]

WIFT AND CHEAP JUSTICE"

THIS issue the WORLD'S WORK be-
ins the publication of a notable series
f articles on "Swift and Cheap Jus-
by Mr. George W. Alger, of the
York Bar. In the last few years
has been a good deal of wild and
criminating criticism of American
s. We have learned, with much
:ularity of detail, that our American
s, like nearly all our other social and
cal institutions, are a disgrace to the
)n. They have been described as the
ate resort of "privilege" — the "last
y" to be overcome. A considerable
nt of this agitation has unques-
bly been badly informed sensation-
; yet our judicial system does call
eformation. Public opinion is now
sing on these tribunals as it has on so
other weak spots in the national
ıization; and nearly all leaders in
ican thought — men like Mr. Theo-
Roosevelt, Mr. William H. Taft,
ney-General McReynolds, Mr. Frank
ellogg, Mr. Joseph H. Choate, and
Elihu Root — are taking the lead in
eadjustment of our legal system.
r this reason a clear, dispassionate,
vell-informed description of our courts,
failings and their virtues, with partic-
emphasis laid upon the essential
dies, is a genuine public service.
e is probably no man in the United
:s better equipped for this task than
Alger. Mr. Alger has studied the
:s minutely; he approaches them with
iewpoint of a man who has no respect
ld things simply because they are old;
most important in a writer dealing
a subject so technical as this, he has
cceedingly attractive and illuminating
ıry style.

his own quiet way Mr. Alger has
led a great influence in recent years
timulating the popular mind in the
ways of thinking. The very title
s latest book, "The Old Law and the
Order," sufficiently indicates the
ude with which he approaches all
l questions. It has been his peculiar
ıs to detect particular faults in the body
ic and to suggest essential reforms
several years before even the "reformers"
had hit upon them. One of his earliest
cases was that of a man who had been
badly injured in a foundry explosion.
Mr. Alger lost this case; the old principle
of "fellow servant" and "contributory
negligence" defeated him. This case,
however, was the incident that made Mr.
Alger the indefatigable investigator of
judicial absurdities and general social
anachronisms. Though he was only
twenty-six years old and legally inex-
perienced, he spent his evenings drafting
an employers' liability law, and, when he
had finished his labors, he offered his
measure to the politicians at Albany.
For several succeeding years, the legis-
lators used to find considerable amusement
in listening to Mr. Alger arguing for his
liability law with many of the "leaders"
of the New York Bar speaking on the other
side. In time, however, public opinon
caught up with Mr. Alger, with the result
that the present Employers' Liabilty Act
of New York State is his work — a
measure which Mr. Alger now regards as
unsatisfactory but which, at the time it
was passed, represented a remarkable
forward step on the subject for New
York. In furtherance of his reform, Mr.
Alger wrote a law textbook on this New
York law which has gone through two
editions and is the standard authority
in that state.

Ten years ago Mr. Alger became chair-
man of the legislative committee of the
Child Labor Committee of New York, and
he has personally drawn a great part of
the bills by which that committee has
improved conditions in that state. He
also drafted the existing law in New
York requiring the payment of the pre-
vailing rate of wages in public contracts.
He has served on the Law Reform Com-
mittee of the State Bar Association; is
one of the organizers of the County
Lawyers Association in New York City,
and a member of its committee on legisla-
tion, and is a director of the Legal Aid Soci-
ety and of the Committee of Fourteen
in New York for the suppression of the
Raines Law hotels.

Mr. Alger's writings, however, have
especially brought him into public notice.

His essays, for the most part dealing with social and legal reforms, have been collected into two volumes, "Moral Overstrain" and "The Old Law and the New Order." Ex-president Roosevelt has declared that Mr. Alger's essays, and particularly the analysis of the theory of industrial liberty called "Some Equivocal Rights of Labor," in the first of these volumes, were very largely instrumental in formulating his own point of view on social problems.

In a sense, therefore, Mr. Alger is the literary sponsor for the present movement for "social justice." But the changes in our judicial methods, of which Mr. Alger writes, are not party matters; men of all political faiths favor improving the machinery of justice.

To this new series in the WORLD'S WORK, Mr. Alger brings a ripened experience and a sane, clear, constructive attitude. His law practice has been varied and substantial but not sensational; at the present time he is one of the receivers of the Wabash Railroad. Before he is anything else, Mr. Alger is a lawyer and he has consented to write these articles because he has a real desire to improve the dignity and usefulness of his profession.

THE BANKERS AND THE CURRENCY

IT IS natural that the bankers should protest against many phases of the new Glass-Owen currency bill. Many bankers, like many men in the other professions, are afraid of any outside interference with anything that directly touches their business.

The feeling that their interests are special and should not be touched except under their guidance has become so strong in the minds of some bankers and business men in the United States that they no longer believe in the United States Government. They are habitual irreconcilables. For example, the president of a large industrial company, in advising Congress to follow the advice of the Chicago Bankers' Convention, said:

> I always believed that men experienced in *any class of* business who have been tried out and proved successful are better able to formulate the policies of the concerns that they are handling, whether they be banks, railroads, or industries, than a miscellaneous set of men that never had any experience in managing affairs of any kind, and in most cases have not been successful in handling anything.

Following this line of thought we should allow the woolen manufacturers to write the woolen tariff, the steamship companies would vote themselves a subsidy, the admirals would increase the size of the Navy. The wildest of the "miscellaneous set of men" seldom speak with less statesmanship than this.

Of course, Congress often passes bad measures, just as other people fail in business. It is likewise often true that more information from experts would often tend to improve legislation. But such business men as the one quoted above render their knowledge unavailable by the narrowness of their vision. A currency bill that meets the requirements of the bankers that met at Chicago may or may not be most beneficial to the other bankers, and to the other non-banking people who compose ninety-nine per cent. or more of the total population. Undoubtedly the men who met at Chicago are wise in their own profession but it is not in human nature that they should be wholly disinterested, and a Congress that allowed them to dictate a currency bill would share the same fate that befell the last Congress that allowed the interests that were directly affected to write a tariff.

The best leadership that has appeared among the banking fraternity is that of Mr. Reynolds, of the Continental-Commercial Bank of Chicago, for his plan was constructive, not irreconcilable. His idea was to get the bill improved as much as possible and then to help it to become law.

The bankers' committee that went to Washington seemingly accepted the inevitable Government control of the Regional Reserve Board. But their influence was toward delay in the passage of the bill, on the assumption that it was hasty legislation.

This it is not. If the bill is not a good bill it is because its framers can not make it a good bill and at the same time get it

through Congress. Plenty of time was spent in its preparation.

We have had at least four years of currency reform in talk and investigation. The public has a right not only to expect a reformed currency but to expect its speedy enactment. Congress is responsible for the kind of reform we get and the time it takes for us to get it.

THE FEAR OF CHANGE

EMINENT bankers say that unless the changes they suggest are made in the currency bill direful consequences will ensue, that all business will be demoralized, and that even such prosperity as we have achieved under the present bad currency system will be in jeopardy.

Though, of course, their suggestions merit careful consideration, their prophecies of ruin should not be taken too seriously. Such prophecies have been made before under similar circumstances and without any very evil results. In 1887, Congress had under consideration an elaborate plan to regulate the railroads. The railroad men and their friends, in Congress and out, were as successful and intelligent men as those who now fear the governmental control of currency. They objected for essentially the same reason that the bankers now object to the Federal Reserve Board: the railroads were the exclusive business of their managers; a "miscellaneous lot of men" could not be trusted to legislate about such a technical business as railroading.

Senator Nelson W. Aldrich, of Rhode Island, voiced these fears as follows:

> What I find fault with is that in order to cure evils which are apparent to the farmers of Illinois or Michigan, you propose to demoralize the whole commerce of the country; you propose to establish an arbitrary, unjust, unreasonable, impracticable rule, which, while it will do what you say, will do much more.

The *Congressional Record* quotes Senator Platt, of Connecticut, as follows:

> It seemed to me, with my knowledge of the history of the management of railroads, and with my knowledge of legislation upon this subject, that the result would be an immediate rate-war by all the railroads of the United States.

Senator Hoar, of Massachusetts, said:

> Here is a proposition which, in my judgment, would be destructive to great business interests in the country, especially to the export business of the principal city of the state which I represent.

On January 31, 1887, the New York *Tribune* expressed its opinion in these words:

> This bill is intended to help Western farmers especially. The *Tribune* believes that it will do them more harm than good, not because many of its aims are not meritorious, not because it lacks excellent features, but because it contains provisions which will increase the cost of transportation for producers and consumers alike, will bury transporting companies under mountains of litigation, interfere with the building of new roads where they are needed, and in the end do much to bring into disrepute and odium restrictive measures undertaken sincerely for the public good.

And in an editorial on March 24, 1887, the New York *Sun* said:

> Of all haphazard legislation that Washington has ever known, this paternal governmental Interstate Commerce Act now appears to us as perhaps the most thoughtless and mischievous that has ever been put forth. If the combined legislative force of the Nation had done a thing as remote from reason and common sense as would be the ruling of an ape upon the Supreme Bench, and if upon its consequences, which are supreme, the greatest interests of the country must hang in doubt, peril, and confusion, what would we expect as its first results?

Far from demoralizing the railroad business, the Interstate Commerce Commission has had a powerful influence in placing it upon a stable basis. It is now one of the world's greatest tribunals; though the President appoints all its members, political considerations do not influence its acts and it has not developed into an instrument of oppression. Perhaps we may have as good fortune under the Glass-Owen currency bill. Years hence, when the present discussion has been forgotten, and the country is going its

usual prosperous gait, some antiquarian, on the outlook for literary curiosities, will amuse the public with the direful comments which certain sections of the press are now making upon the present currency plan.

A PATIENT PROGRAMME WITH MEXICO

A SPEEDY settlement of the Mexican problem is out of the question, for the Mexican problem will be with us in a more or less aggravated form until that country establishes peace throughout its borders. It is now suffering from the accumulated ills of the last two years since revolution wrenched Mexican affairs out of the iron hand of Porfirio Diaz. The constructive processes that must follow such disruption are slow even when they are started and we can therefore hardly look for an end to Mexican troubles for some years to come. But, on the other hand, once the constructive forces get under way our problem is no longer acute.

For Mexico's sake and for our own we should do everything in our power to help it start its building up process aright. It could hardly do that under Huerta, for his claim rests solely on a military usurpation of power. His becoming Provisional President was but another step away from constitutional government. If he had the ability of Diaz, as he has the courage and cruelty, this grim old Indian might also establish a lasting dictatorship. But he has not the wisdom of his former master and, therefore, probably not the ability to maintain a place of power to which he has no claim but strength.

President Wilson is optimist enough to believe that Mexico is ready to begin building up. He has chosen to try to help that country on its big, far-reaching task, a task which Mexico must undertake if it is to get its affairs on a permanent basis of peace and progress. It is a statesmanlike and patriotic programme that the President is following, and the Senate, including most of the Republican members who put patriotism above partizanship, has risen *nobly in its support*. To help Mexico help herself is a programme that will demand infinite patience and good will and real patriotism. And it is not a programme from which any political capital can be made, for there is nothing dramatic in it. Yet it is a great task, in which, if we succeed, we shall merit the world's thanks.

LABOR UNIONS FOR PEACE

RECENTLY 563 delegates, representing 2,250,000 workmen, met in Manchester, England — the Forty-sixth Annual Trades Union Congress. The American Federation of Labor was represented by two delegates, and for the first time Canada, Germany, and France were also represented. In welcoming the delegates the Right Reverend James E. C. Welldon, Dean of Manchester, said that he looked with the utmost hope to the development of international trades unions as agencies of universal peace.

"It is you, above all other bodies," he declared, "who will put an end to war among the nations."

Although the present union organizations, even abroad, have not a strong enough hold to withstand the pomp and panoply of war, they are nevertheless an ever increasing influence against large armaments. The workingmen realize more and more clearly that, though they pay taxes for military equipment and do yeoman's service in the ranks, the profit of wars goes elsewhere. The power of numbers should make the unions a great force for peace, but so far there has not risen from their ranks a great leader to make their force effective.

A QUESTION OF UNION LEADERSHIP

IN THE last twenty years in the United States there has been a great amount of labor legislation. Laws requiring the adoption of safety appliances on the railroads, in factories, and in the mines have been passed in many of the states and they are constantly being added to. There is a tremendous pressure of an awakened public opinion upon all manufacturers to provide decent working conditions

and fair hours. Because the ordinary legal procedure failed to give workmen fair compensation for injuries received in their work, there has been a rapid spread of employers' liability laws. A new social conscience is restricting the hours of women's work and gradually prohibiting the working of young children.

All these reforms are primarily in the interest of the working people, and yet, curious as it may seem, they have been achieved more by other agencies than by the labor unions. In these constructive tasks of social justice the unions have not made their influence felt as they might. Manufacturers, lawyers, social workers, and all kinds of leagues and societies, charitable and otherwise, have been the chief promoters of these reforms.

But even yet there are slow witted men herded like cattle to work; there are still women ruining their health and happiness in a few short years in industry; there are still little children at work. There should be no abatement in the zeal with which we root out these evils. But in doing this we should be doing justice only. These things are not favors. They do not constitute a special privilege to a particular class. They should be done because neglecting them works harm to the whole body politic.

Some of this legislation seems likely to be misinterpreted by the leaders of the labor unions. While we have been legislating for social justice on the one hand in favor of the wage earner, the corporation — the great employer of labor — has been undergoing its hour of trial. It had come to look upon itself as a thing with special privileges; to gain its ends it had broken the law; and a heavy justice has followed.

The labor unions have played their part against the "oppressing corporations" and every defeat of the corporations was accepted as a union advance. But, like the corporations, the unions have taken advantage of the public indifference to break the law. Conspiracy in restraint of trade is a part of their every-day operations as it used to be a routine of business. When occasion demands the unions descend to intimidation or even bloodshed. Some of their methods are as bad as the old wars in the oil fields. So far the objects of union attack have fought their own fight. In the past, except when it has been inconvenienced, the public has cared little about it. But there are indications that the same anger which overtook the corporations will also overtake the unions, for the great mass of the American people are no more tolerant of special privileges taken by labor organizations than they are of privileges usurped by corporations.

THE RED HAND OF ARSON

WE ARE accustomed, almost callous, to the tremendous annual fire "waste" in the United States. But to find that one in every four fires in the City of New York is deliberately lighted for financial gain — that ought to be enough to startle us out of our indifference. Fire Commissioner Johnson says:

> It is my sober judgment that in the City of New York at least 25 per cent. of all fires are of incendiary origin. When it is said that of 14,571 fires in Greater New York in a single year, 3,643 of them were probably deliberately started and planned, a full realization of the prevalence of this crime may be arrived at.
>
> I have during my career in the New York Fire Department entered a building to find many bladders filled with oils hanging around, ready at the first touch of flame to scatter their contents, oil-soaked streamers stretching in every direction, ready to communicate the fire to all parts of the premises, and with a candle burning in the midst of a pile of oil-soaked rubbish, steadily, second by second, burning its way outward toward the surrounding prepared material, perhaps a hundred sleeping people above, tired and worn out with their day's toil, while the candle shortens inch by inch, and while the firebug waits nearby mentally counting his approaching gain.

The gain is, of course, the insurance money. The life insurance companies refuse to issue policies to people of certain callings and characteristics because of the risk they run of sickness and death. There is an infinitely greater hazard in insuring buildings for the benefit of men without character than there is in insuring the lives of men with poor health. And the fire insurance companies owe it to their honest policyholders, to their stockholders,

and to the community to be much more stringent in the moral requirements of the people to whom they issue insurance.

About 3,500 fires were deliberately lighted in New York City last year. Seventy-two cases of arson were brought to court, twenty-three convictions were secured. The need is urgent that the hand of the law fall heavier than this upon men who are willing to risk the safety of thousands of people to carry out their dishonest schemes for money-making.

It is time, too, that the public demand better measures of fire protection. As explained elsewhere in this number of the magazine, the mutual insurance companies have shown that rigid inspection and proper appliances will almost eliminate the risk of fire. While city conditions are not the same as the conditions surrounding the mills insured in the factory mutuals, the same methods could accomplish approximately the same results. What is needed to get these methods adopted is an enlightened and aroused public opinion. The fire problem is not only the insurance companies' business and the fire commissioners' business, it is every man's business not only in New York but in every city in the country.

DAYTON'S STEP FORWARD IN CITY GOVERNMENT

DAYTON, Ohio, has adopted the "city manager" plan of municipal government to take effect under a new charter the first of next year. After that date the city council will consist of five commissioners whose duties, except when they appoint the general manager, are purely legislative. They take the place of the older larger council and concentrate responsibility for city ordinances in a few hands. But the remarkable phase of the new charter is the concentration of practically all the executive power of a large city in the hands of one man, the general manager. He is to administer all the city's business except the courts and the schools.

This is an advance even upon the charter *of Staunton,* Va., which originated the general manager plan, for in Staunton the control of the police and fire departments remains in the hands of the mayor, and the general manager is entrusted principally with business details, such as the purchasing of supplies, paving of streets, and similar functions that involve the expenditure of money.

This is, of course, also a radical advance upon the commission form of government, under which the legislative and executive functions are in the same hands and under which the executive departments are parcelled out among the commissioners and the executive responsibility thereby divided. Dayton puts the whole burden of administration upon one man. Abuse of his extraordinary power is prevented by provisions for the initiative, referendum, and recall.

Dayton thus approaches the nearest of all large American cities to the German system, by which the administration of municipal government has become a specialized technical profession that is undertaken as a life work by men of the highest intelligence and ambition, who prepare for the task by years of study and who find their employment well paid and stable. So seriously is their work considered that, a few years ago, a large German city advertised for months for a mayor (who corresponds to Dayton's general manager), offering a high salary, before an applicant who dared pretend to possess the necessary qualifications asked for the place.

It may very well be that Dayton has taken the step forward that will place the chief administrator of a big city's affairs in a position of such security and dignity that municipal government may become a field for the best business ability and the most statesmanlike intelligence of the country.

Years ago, when the recently-retired Ambassador Bryce wrote "The American Commonwealth," city government was the one conspicuous failure which he had to chronicle. With the wide spread of the commission form of government and the hopeful experiments in city-managers, the present would afford a much brighter picture.

THE PROFESSION OF BUSINESS

THE soldier is, relatively speaking, unimportant in American life. As compared to other countries and other times, even our statesmen, with the possible exception of our Presidents, are not held first in our estimation. In spite of all convictions under the Sherman Law, and the many disclosures of business lobbies, a "successful business man" comes near to being our national ideal.

We are beginning even to utilize business in fiction in a way that previous generations have not done. Always there have been "business men" in literature. Shakespeare wrote of Antonio and Shylock, but it was not the technique of their business that he chose to portray. To glorify merchandizing and to put in a novel the science of salesmanship is a thing that is probably peculiar to this age. Neither soldier, sailor, poet, nor politician is looked upon with such regard as the American business-man. And this should have its good effect. The more esteemed a calling the better its standards. A nation that looks up to its industrial leader puts a premium upon making business a high calling. Already, at least two colleges, Harvard and Dartmouth, have business schools, not so much to teach the student business practice as to give him a broad business vision and a high business standard, such an attitude toward his calling as is common among the professions that require special training.

In a way we are becoming the Chinese of the Occidental world. We are doing now what they have done for centuries, glorifying the merchant and neglecting the soldier who with us for centuries past in fact and in fiction has been the dominant man of our national ideals.

A NEW DEVELOPMENT IN THE BOSS SYSTEM

THE present political situation in New York is, at least temporarily, an unpleasant exception to our improving political conditions. It has been a long time since Tammany has had so wide an ascendancy as it has now. Under Mr. Croker, it wielded authority only over the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx. For a generation Brooklyn and the outlying suburbs were particularly proud that they had successfully resisted Tammany domination. Several years ago, however, Tammany "crossed the bridge." For the last two years it has even controlled the New York State legislature. In the Dix administration Mr. Murphy, the Tammany leader, wielded an important influence in the Governor's chamber. Last fall he nominated a candidate who apparently assured him complete domination over the executive department. The fact, however, that Governor Sulzer tried to set up for himself, in defiance of Mr. Murphy, has precipitated the most scandalous political situation New York has known in a generation. As a counter move against the independence of his old time ally, Mr. Murphy has laid hands upon the power of impeachment. Tammany, in its long and unsavory history, has utilized various agencies for its own profit, but this is the first time that the highest judicial tribunal in the state, that organized to conduct impeachment trials, has ever been utilized as part of its machinery.

And this, after all, is the aspect of the matter that has the largest public concern. The guilt of Governor Sulzer on this count does not particularly matter. That he has been unfit for the high office of Governor has long been evident. But his unfitness is not the reason for his impeachment. The real reason for his impeachment is his refusal to hand over the powers of his office to Tammany.

Other episodes in the recent New York legislative session emphasize this point. In the early days circumstantial charges of bribery were brought against Senator Stillwell. The proof was abundant against Mr. Stillwell but the Tammany legislature acquitted him. He is now serving a term in Sing Sing, sent there on conviction of the identical charges for which the Tammany legislature gave him a clean bill of health. A few months ago charges were preferred to the legislature against Justice Daniel F. Cohalan, of the Supreme Court. The case was similar to

Governor Sulzer's; certain offenses said to have been committed by Justice Cohalan before his election to the bench were held to disqualify him for judicial office. The legislature, after listening to the evidence, "vindicated" Justice Cohalan. The chief point in which his situation differed from Mr. Sulzer's was that Justice Cohalan was still on good terms with Tammany.

Here, then, is a political organization of ill repute that uses the high ends of justice to "vindicate" those who remain loyal to it and to "impeach" those who endeavor to break away. And Tammany has had the hardihood to force this situation upon the public attention immediately before a city election.

There was never a better time to take New York City out of Tammany's hands. It has drawn attention anew to its own shortcomings in its vengeance upon Mr. Sulzer. This is no defense of the Governor. He was not a proper candidate to begin with, and his nomination and election by Tammany are just as good proofs of Tammany's unfitness to rule as are Tammany's motives in the impeachment.

FOR THE GOOD OF THE SERVICE

SECRETARY GARRISON has completed his tour of inspection of the army posts which are scattered all over the United States. Many of them are relics of the Indian Wars or even of Revolutionary days. The General Staff of the Army is on record that most of them are of no military value. The Secretary himself, even before he made his tour, realized that there was urgent need of cutting down the unnecessary expenses of maintenance and that garrisoning the useless posts meant the division of the army into such small units as seriously to hamper its efficiency.

In the Navy a similar situation exists. There are a number of useless and expensive stations scattered up and down the coast, from the yard at Portsmouth, N. H., to the station at Charleston, S. C. They, too, are survivals of past conditions or of political pull.

Secretary Daniels's predecessor knew of this condition and tried to remedy it, but he failed to win the approval of Congress for his plans.

Mr. Garrison and Mr. Daniels have, therefore, before them an opportunity to put the United Service on a better footing and at the same time to save the Treasury the large sums of money that are now being wasted. How the Secretaries meet this issue will give a fair indication of their aims and ideals in the administration of their departments and of their ability to gain the necessary coöperation from Congress.

THE APPOINTER-GENERAL

IN THE first 152 working days since Postmaster-General Burleson began his administration he appointed 5,765 postmasters. Of these 2,203 were Presidential appointments that have to have the confirmation of the Senate. In other words, the director of a great transportation agency that is vital to the interests of the whole country has had to spend much of his time looking over the qualifications of the privates in his army — not only the qualifications of the thirty-eight a day that were given jobs but two or three times that many that had to be refused. This is a waste of his time and a detriment to the service. To hire a postmaster who is to get $3 a day, or about carpenter's wages, necessitates consultation between the Postmaster-General and one or two Senators, and also probably with a Representative. And then when the job is assigned it is necessary to make the President of the United States go through the red tape of appointing the man and to make the Senate of the United States perform its august function of confirmation.

Of course Postmaster-General Burleson did not originate this plan nor can he do away with it without the approval of Congress, but it would be a welcome sight, after his improvements in the parcel post, to see him attack this long standing abuse. Such practices as these, and the fact that recent Postmaster-Generals have been also campaign managers, give to the post office a political aspect which for the good of the service should be eliminated.

FINANCIAL TALE OF TWO CITIES

THIS is a financial tale of two cities written for the investor in municipal bonds.

One of the cities is Atchison, Kans. Though among the st in the state, it has never been ambi- to become a metropolis. Its citizens to boast of the substantial character, er than of the rapidity, of the city's th, both in population and in prop- values. Its population by the last us report was about 16,500.

n July 1, 1883, Atchison issued ,950 worth of bonds to pay off some indebtedness. These bonds bore est at the rate of 4 per cent. a , and were to run for thirty years. ng the provisions of their issuance one which made it a duty of the city als to raise every year, by means of , a sum of money large enough not to meet the interest on the bonds but to create a fund for the payment of principal at maturity.

esumably, all the legal preliminaries ssary to making an issue of this were properly attended to. The ls were bought as an entire issue by ers who, in turn, parcelled them out veral smaller lots to investors. For s they were forgotten, except as their rs were reminded twice every year e interest being "due and payable at ffice of the City Treasurer at the City tchison," or, perhaps, when they sionally passed from hand to hand in te business transactions. Had these icipal bonds been true to family tra- n, they would have ended naturally iet and uneventful life — held in high d by investors — exactly at the end ree score years, and there would have no occasion to mention them here.

t as July 1, 1913, drew near — the n which the holders of these Atchison s expected to be able to turn in their ities for money — something unusual ened. A notice was sent out by ison's mayor that the city couldn't off the maturing bonds. The notice went on to explain that, in the past, it had apparently been deemed unnecessary to maintain the sinking fund for which provision had been specifically made; that "on account of a temporary stringency in the money market" Atchison had not been able to raise the necessary funds to meet the maturing debt; and that, therefore, the best the city could offer was new bonds in exchange for the old, "with the same rate of interest that had satisfied for thirty years." This, the mayor thought, ought to be acceptable to every one under the adverse circumstances.

But he had reckoned without his host. A New York banking house, into whose hands some of the bonds had fallen, lost no time in making it plain to the city officials that new securities would not be acceptable under the terms offered. It was pointed out that, though the 4 per cent. interest might have been satisfactory for many years after the bonds were issued, under present conditions investment funds were demanding and receiving a higher rate than that. In fact, it was declared flatly that new 4 per cent. Atchison bonds were not worth par.

It should, perhaps, be explained that the fundamental difference between the kind of "refunding" proposed by the mayor of Atchison and the familiar kind so frequently resorted to by the great railroad and industrial corporations lies in the fact that the latter always offer to the bondholder the alternative of receiving cash payment if he is dissatisfied with the terms of the new securities, even though they may — in fact, practically always do — bear a higher rate of interest.

Two ways of solving Atchison's financial problem were suggested. First, raising the necessary funds by making an appeal to the civic pride of local bankers; second, fixing the rate of interest on the new bonds at 5 per cent. and, perhaps, providing for their early maturity. It was recalled that the latter was the kind of solution which the state of Tennessee had sensibly and successfully applied to a

similar problem not very long before. But the discovery was made that in Atchison's case it would be necessary to apply to the state legislature for authority to issue bonds at a higher rate, and it was too late to take that action, because the legislature had adjourned. There seemed, moreover, to be insurmountable obstacles in the way of resorting to the other suggested solution. So there was nothing left for the bondholders to do but to appeal to the Kansas courts.

This was done, and within twenty-three days after July 1st, the date on which payment of the bonds should have been made, the Supreme Court of the state of Kansas declared that Atchison could not officially fix the amount of taxes for the citizens to pay for the running of the city during the next few years unless it included taxes to take up the defaulted bonds in annual instalments, with 4 per cent. interest added

The effect of this Supreme Court decision was to bring about a radical change in the attitude of Atchison's officials and to turn them back upon the second suggested solution of their problem. Immediately they communicated with the holders of the old bonds, asking if, instead of receiving their payments in annual instalments, they would not be willing to take in exchange new twenty-year 5 per cent. bonds, which would be provided with a sinking fund large enough to enable the city to retire them before maturity.

One response to this communication brought out the moral of Atchison's experience, which has been related here in a good deal of detail because it is unique. In it the suggestion was made that in the light of all that had happened when the old bonds matured it could scarcely be expected that investors would place entire confidence in the city's attitude toward its financial obligations. More assurance on this point was needed to get people to accept new bonds, no matter how satisfactory their general terms might be.

Atchison was able to point to such things as a low total and per capita debt, a high market value of taxable property back of its bonds, and a substantial amount of assets owned. Yet a single administration left room for doubt about its moral responsibility in safeguarding outs bonds. This might happen in a any American city once in a whil interesting thing for the holder of m pal bonds is to know what guaranti has against such actions.

The officials of Atchison were mad mandate of the highest court of thei to see the error of their ways and i less than three weeks. That is th portant point of the story. It will less turn out that the city's credit ha saved. And the unique record for of municipal bonds as a class—a which has demonstrated their p fitness to be treated as the ground permanent investment—has been from an unseemly blemish.

The other city is Fargo, N. D., the same general class as Atchison about an equal number of inhabitant an equal amount of wealth in pr values. Its part in the tale is briefl as suggesting another element that in an important way into the secu municipal bonds.

Late in 1912 the mayor of Fargo the extraordinary announcement th city had declared a dividend of cent. At first no one seemed to u stand what was meant, but the ex tion was offered soon afterward that ing the year, the city had saved $10,000, which it had been decid refund to taxpayers in proportion to last assessments. This dividend wa in cash a few months ago, and it sta an exceptional achievement in effi and economy of city administration

It is, of course, not to be expecte Fargo's example can be followed ge by other cities under similar circumst But if the declaration of actual div to taxpayers does not become a part routine proceedings of our "city fa there are plenty of other ways of p economy and efficiency in evidence, thus giving additional investment p to the whole class of bonds that are by taxes, the kind of "earnings" must be paid, as the Kansas S Court emphasized by the decision it rendered with such swift justice case of the Atchison bonds.

NSURANCE THAT PREVENTS FIRE

'ONDERFUL RECORD OF THE FACTORY MUTUALS WHICH LOSE ONLY ONE TWENTIETH OF ONE PER CENT. OF THE PROPERTY THEY INSURE

BY

FRANK WILLIAMS

LEVEN years ago the "big fire" broke out in the city of Paterson, N. J. A northwest gale in a temperature of twenty degrees above zero pushed a wall of thousand feet long more than uarters of a mile. Six million worth of property burned up. the fire reached the richest prizes the silk mills, it stopped.

fire companies of Paterson and all rounding cities were already de- the streets were full of frozen ınd people in the business and :e districts just beyond the silk ere only waiting for those somber gs to light up as a signal to desert y. But the silk mills remained The fire did not reach them. lls themselves, with their own fire- finally beat off the attacking ation when it had burned to fifty feet of them.

ıs a miracle, but like most modern s it had a reason behind it. The the silk mills did not burn was ıey were insured in the Factory s, and they require preparation every fire possibility.

people will ask at once: What Factory Mutuals?

are merely associations of mill who insure one another. They t run for profit. They are only re the mills and factories of their rs, but in doing that they have rmed buildings that at one time ınsidered the worst fire risks into est kind of buildings in America, as fire is concerned. They have again the old adage that an ounce ention is worth a pound of cure.

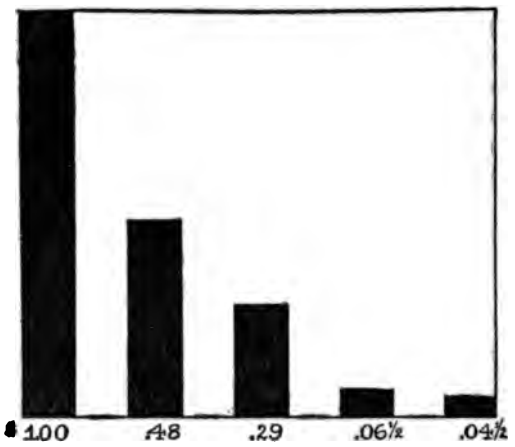
e are nineteen Mutuals in all, convenience they have formed ıssociated Mutual Fire Insurance Companies, with headquarters in Boston. They make no attempt to secure business, and any mill owner is eligible for membership if he complies with their strict rules of fire prevention. They charge approximately the same premiums that other insurance companies do. But after they have paid the cost of doing business, of inspection, and the fire loss, they return what is left to their members in proportion to the premiums paid. This rebate now amounts to more than 90 per cent. of the premium.

When the Mutuals were formed, the insurance rate on factories was "a dollar a hundred." The mill owner with a $100,000 property had to pay $1,000 a year for fire insurance. By taking a few simple precautions the Mutuals were able at once to reduce the rate to 50 cents a hundred, and, now that they have made a science of fire prevention, they have a rate of only four and one half cents. That means that the insurance on a $100,000 building is $45 a year. The insurer's premium on its face is far more than this, but the rebate brings the net payment down to this insignificant sum.

Of course, the reason for this is that the mills insured, and therefore inspected, by the Factory Mutuals very seldom have fires. While almost all other kinds of buildings are burning up faster than ever before, the mills and foundries insured in the Factory Mutuals are having only one fire where they formerly had from fifteen to thirty. The use of automatic sprinklers has in itself reduced the number of factory fires to one eighth, and the automatic sprinkler owes its existence to the Factory Mutuals. Their experiments with sprinkler systems over a long course of years led to the invention of the automatic sprinkler. In fact it was forced by them on a reluctant public. All the mills

of their members have been compelled to have automatic sprinklers for more than thirty years, and yet it is commonly regarded as a recent invention. As early as 1887 one mill owner had installed in his plants automatic systems containing twenty-five hundred sprinkler heads. It was not until many years later that builders in cities discovered the value of this simple device. Meanwhile the Mutuals had experimented on hundreds of types of heads and placed their approval on only six.

The records of the transition period when automatic sprinklers were being



CUTTING THE COST OF MILL INSURANCE

BEFORE THE MUTUALS WERE ORGANIZED THE RATE WAS A DOLLAR A HUNDRED; IMMEDIATELY AFTER, IT FELL TO 48 CENTS; THEN (IN 1875) WHEN THE AUTOMATIC SPRINKLER WAS INVENTED, TO 29 CENTS. THE AVERAGE RATE SINCE 1880 HAS BEEN 6½ CENTS, AND IT IS NOW 4½ CENTS

installed in mills furnish a comparison which proves their value. In the ten years between 1877 and 1887, mills without sprinklers insured in one company had 759 fires, with a loss of $5,707,000, or $7,500 to the fire. In the same period there were 206 fires in mills outfitted with automatic sprinklers with a total loss of $222,480, or $1,080 to the fire. Even at that early date the automatic sprinkler reduced the fire loss to one seventh.

The proof was so plain that insurance on "sprinklered risks" can now be purchased cheaply everywhere. The saving in rates is so great that brokers in many cities are offering to install sprinkler systems in old buildings to the owners. All they paid the same rates the panies have been receiv of installation is paid fi four years by the addition

It is on account of th spections that the Factory been so successful. Ther of them in 1880, insurin million dollars' worth of monly considered extra ha are still nineteen and they considerably more than tw worth of the same kin They are all much stro ever were and their busine more than ten-fold.

Compare this with oth concerns. Of the 105 fire companies organized in doing business in the y are only 20 left. Of th since been organized, o living. This leaves 44 o — exactly one fourth.

When an application f made to one of the nin a member of the board which acts for all of them, and makes a careful s survey, which is worked c in considerable detail, he of the changes necessary to the standard, which is Enclosed stairways, elev shafts, as well as auto are required. As a resu when contemplating new st submit their plans first for suggestion and appro changes are necessary i the difference in insurance sufficient to make it wor owners of buildings wer meet similarly stiff requir to obtain insurance at al would be exercised that loss would shrink to only what it is now.

Before the Mutuals w fire in a mill usually mea No one had taught the n enclosed stairways and s

le changes in construction would re- the fire hazard. The president of an ance company at that time remarked, fusing to insure a cotton mill, that ould insure any cotton mill to burn ut that he would not issue a policy ist its burning at any rate of premium. len mills and paper mills were almost ad. But now the percentage of losses to fires is less than one per , and the cost of insurance is about twentieth of what it was.

e first man to study fire prevention Zachariah Allen, a cotton manu- rer of Allendale, R. I. He was measure the Thomas Edison of his He invented the automatic cut-off for steam engines and built the house furnace. He took the first ate measure of the water-flow over ara Falls. When, in 1835, the rate s cotton mill was raised on account e large number of cotton mill fires, efused to pay the higher premium set about making his mill proof st fire. Other cotton manufacturers hode Island followed his example nade similar changes, but the insur- companies refused to make allow- for the dangers they had removed. Allen then induced the others to join him in carrying their own insurance. formed the Manufacturers' Mutual Insurance Company of Providence, irst of the Factory Mutuals.

few years later the mill owners of ll, Mass., found themselves in a ir predicament, and decided to in- one another. Their study of fire ntion led to one of the most im- nt of modern fire-fighting develop- s, the first of the high-pressure water ns. We owe that also to the Mutuals. areful construction, their high pres- water system, and the quick use ll new fire-preventing inventions, owell mills were able to reduce their sses during a period of thirty-seven to an annual destruction from fire ly one twentieth of one per cent. of alue of the mills.

e Mutual idea has grown steadily g its entire history and has not met a single set-back. During three quarters of a century there has not been a single case of a Mutual failing to meet its obligations and, except in earlier years before there was time to perfect fire-preventing devices, no assessments have been levied. Some of the oldest associations, like the Arkwright, of Boston, have never assessed their members. The policy of the Mutuals has always been to pay losses at once and without question. Adjustments are easily made, because both parties to the contract know exactly what the risk is. It has never been necessary to take a case into court.

After the automatic sprinkler was invented in 1875, the Mutuals entered upon a period that has made the modern city possible. Seeing in this little device the solution of the fire problem twenty-five years before the rest of the world, they established a laboratory for tests and aided materially in bringing about the quick and safe sprinkler now in use. In fact, their own members were so fearful of damage from leakage that the association agreed to assume the damage from leakage, and their policies contain a clause to that effect even now.

For many years they have acted as one body except in the assumption of risk. After the inspectors have reported on a mill, the various companies decide what portion of the risk they are willing to assume. The caution with which they proceed is shown in the large staff of inspectors and engineers. They do their work so carefully that only two adjusters are necessary for the whole country. The inspectors follow one another at uncertain intervals. Mill-owners never know when they are coming and, if they wish to continue under a low rate of insurance, they know they must keep their mills up to the mark. All fire-preventing and fire-fighting apparatus must be in perfect order, there must be no accumulation of material likely to catch fire, and recommendations by inspectors must be carried out promptly. If a mill-owner is reported lax or slow about carrying out the suggestions of inspectors his policy is cancelled. The Associations act on the assumption that there is no excuse for disastrous fires. Many of the

provisions in the standard building code which the National Board of Fire Underwriters is trying to have enacted in all cities were originally perfected by the Mutuals. In fact, all advances in fire-prevention are accredited to the Mutuals by Mr. P. J. McKeon, whose text-book on fire prevention is used by the Bureau of Fire Prevention of the New York City Fire Department.

Beginning in a few mills along the Atlantic Coast, the Mutuals now carry risks in all the big manufacturing districts of the United States and Canada. Most cotton mills, originally the worst of all mill risks, are now insured in the Mutuals whether they are located in New England or the South. Mutual inspectors range all through the Middle West as far as the Missouri River. In the Middle West, also, their example has been followed by organizations of manufacturers who have formed what are known as the "Junior Mutuals," and they also are successful.

For the most part the Mutuals have not written insurance on property in the larger cities. Yet their influence has penetrated these centres.

The modern mill type developed by them is finding expression in the modern loft building, the most popular type of city structure. The Mutuals proved that this kind of building with enclosed stairways and shafts, solid plank or concrete floors, and flat roofs is the cheapest and most durable of structures. It is a safe risk even when full of inflammable cotton in the course of manufacture. The automatic sprinkler can be counted upon to stop all damage from fire at the point where it starts. Even office buildings are now following the loft, or mill, type. In most modern offices it has been found more practicable to do away with subdividing walls. With builders these loft buildings are popular because their up-keep is not expensive. The insurance rate on this type is but a fraction of the rate on the old type of office building. The steady replacing of old structures by these modern loft buildings, developments of the Mutuals' regulations, is gradually fire-pro s.

Not only this, but th the mill owners in coöpe fire risks is being followe It has caused the format mercantile companies, kno insurers," in which the two or three dozen cities for fire protection. Thei been partly to prevent exce partly to reap the benefit fire-preventing devices, as l now compel the adoption vices developed by the M were not for the autom the modern type of dep for example, would be s hazard that it would not Yet department store ow through many cities, have in fire-preventing apparat are willing to insure one owners of modern office and would probably be doing th but they have not had the s as a special class of insura known as American Lloyd a specialty of these "sprin and insures them at rates favorably even with the c insurance.

The story of mutual and its effect upon fire p summed up in a history of Mutual Fire Insurance Com ton, published last year, in tion of its fiftieth annive insured in the course of $3,680,000,000 worth of pro had losses amounting to or Premiums returned to p amounted to $21,700,000. fifty years it had returned t an average of 84½ per cent and, in 1910, with $270,000 property at risk, it was per cent. of the premiums.

The history of the Mu the history of fire preve country. If our fire waste duced it must be according t they have established. Ev standards will have to be economic waste of a qua year is too large a drain to

)W-RATE, LONG-TIME MONEY FOR THE FARMS

WHAT THE BANKS CAN DO — WHAT COÖPERATIVE SOCIETIES CAN DO

BY

RALPH W. MOSS

E OF CONGRESS FROM INDIANA, AND MEMBER OF THE UNITED STATES COMMISSION LATELY RETURNED FROM STUDYING RURAL CREDIT IN EUROPE)

THE farmers of Europe are more highly organized to secure financial credit than are the farmers of the United States, and they get money at rates and for longer terms. The us governments have given cordial nition to the farmers' organizations n many ways have extended aid to ıovement. As the coöperative credit iations have already spread over the nent and are now being organized :land, we may safely accept the uni- l testimony that these organizations g from the necessity for a better n of rural credit than the com- al banks offered.

rm credit differs essentially from ıercial credit. The period between oan and repayment must be longer. farmer cannot make his turn-over ickly as can the merchant. In rural : that properly serves productive agri- re the repayment of a loan should not manded until the maturity of the crop ıich the borrowed capital is invested. e essential problem in establishing a system is to be found in the re- ıg of the money which is lent for considerable periods. Of course a ng association must necessarily accept its in order to secure funds. This is of the coöperative loan associations of pe, and 90 per cent. of the money ı they lend to their members is placed ir care by depositors. These deposits ccepted in the same way that similar actions are conducted by American ers. They can be withdrawn in the manner that deposits can be with- drawn from American banks. When they lend this money to farmers they must have a way of replacing it if their depositors wish to withdraw. The European loan associations replace their capital by indorsing the farmers' notes and by rediscounting these notes to meet the demands of their depositors without compelling the repayment of loans made to their members. In this respect, the banking laws of European countries differ from our banking laws. For example, the Bank of France has the legal right to issue bank notes based upon commercial paper which bears three indorsements. In order to meet this legal requirement the farmers organized the small association composed of neighboring farmers. These small units were then grouped around a regional or central bank. The system was now complete because a chain was constructed to join the farm with the government bank. A farmer presents his promissory note to his association for discount. His neighbor acts as his security by indorsing this note. This is the first indorsement. The loan association then adds its indorsement and presents the note to the regional bank. This guarantee of the association is the second indorsement. It now only remains for the regional bank to add its indorsement and forward it to the Bank of France, which issues bank notes for it. The local loan association discounts the farmer's note, the regional bank rediscounts it, and the Bank of France rediscounts it again in the form of an issue of bank notes. The farmer gets his money at low rates for long periods and yet the

ultimate lender, the Bank of France, takes little risk, being protected by an original borrower and two indorsements. In this way, also, the depositor in an association is enabled to receive his money from the association before the loan is repaid by the farmer. In substance, this element is embodied in every system of rural credit in Europe. It is evident that it is the privilege of rediscount rather than the coöperative organization which is the foundation stone of this credit system. Coöperation is the method by which the special provisions of law are being utilized for farm purposes.

As our banking laws have not permitted the issue of currency against farmers' notes, no matter how many times indorsed, there will have to be modifications if we are to organize effective systems of rural credits after European models. But if these changes are made our existing banks can utilize these rediscount privileges as effectively as can coöperative associations. There are as many chartered banks in the United States per thousand population as there are in Germany, with its coöperative associations. At present, neither chartered banks nor coöperative associations in the United States can lend deposited funds and meet the demands for the return of these funds from any other source than repayment by the borrower. It is useless to argue whether banks or coöperative organizations are best adapted to advance credit to farmers until it is made possible for such business to be transacted successfully. The first requisite, and it is one on which all persons can unite, is a change in our banking system which will permit rediscounting of solvent loans. This power of rediscount should be placed under governmental control. I heartily indorse that portion of the pending currency bill which places the Secretary of Agriculture on the Federal Reserve Board. It is a great forward step in currency reform from the standpoint of agricultural credit and agricultural equality in the money markets of the United States.

Conceding that the proposed revision of our currency laws will give every proper facility for the organization of agricultural credit, it will become a questi bankers to decide whether they this credit or, by refusal, co organization of coöperative cr ciations. It is abundantly pr such organizations are safe and It is simply a matter of organi models which have been proved of successful experience.

II

A modern system of land credit is of greater importance t Nation than an improved sy personal credits. Our farmers are an era of extraordinary expansi they keep abreast of the time depleted fertility of our farms i restored; better roads are to structed; the quality of our live to be improved, and their numbe increased; better methods of t to be adopted; higher standard cultural education are to be and, finally, the young man is couraged to acquire ownership he cultivates so as to avert th menace of landlordism. Thes tures in the aggregate will am stupendous sum and their should be distributed over a l of time. The rate of interest reduced to the level of othe undertakings of like magni Europe, money is available for poses at nearly as low rates as t ments can borrow for national This is as it should be. In sense, the rebuilding of agricul permanent lines is a national e as vital to the future suprema Nation as is the maintenance of and navy.

European experience has c demonstrated that land mortg can be sold in large volume at of interest. The proceeds of th can be lent to farmers on payments at a low rate of inter small payment on the princi ultimately will wipe out the France, the annual charge for si including all principal, interest mission charges, is less than 5

perhaps this rate will be a fair average for the Continent. The Government lends money to farmers for special purposes at a lower rate, but I am speaking of the ordinary commercial rate for the repayment of a mortgage loan. I know that it is difficult for an American farmer to understand that a loan will be repaid in full by annual payments which are lower than our present interest charges alone; but it is a fact that can easily be demonstrated.

The usual method of negotiating these long-time mortgage credits is by fixing a rate of repayment which cannot be changed during the life of the loan. This rate of payment includes an allowance for current interest due on the loan, an amount to be kept by the bank for administration, and a certain sum to be credited on the principal. In the language of the bank, these are called "interest, administration, and amortization."

The standard length of time in Europe for a long-time loan is 54 years. For such a loan at the present time the rate is 4.85 per cent., divided as follows: interest, 4 per cent., administration, .35 per cent., and amortization (payment on principal) .50 per cent. This rate will pay both principal and interest and repay all charges due to the bank in 54 years. As this will seem almost incredible to some students, I will give a concrete illustration of how it works. It does not depend upon compound interest, but upon the fact that though the rate of yearly payment remains the same, the charge for interest and administration is constantly decreasing because they are computed on the principal sum which is constantly being repaid. Therefore, the proportion which is applied toward the repayment of the principal is always increasing.

For illustration: If the debt were $1,000, the debtor will pay $24.25 every six months. Of the first payment, $20 will go for interest, $1.75 belongs to the bank, and $2.50 is applied to the repayment of the principal. When the debt is half discharged, however, this distribution will be greatly changed. The borrower will pay $24.25 as usual; of this amount, only $10 will go for interest, 88 cents will be retained by the bank, while $13.37 will be applied to the discharge of the principal. The final payment will be almost wholly devoted to the payment of principal as the first one went largely to the payment of interest. In this way, one half of 1 per cent. will repay the principal in 54 years, provided a constant payment is maintained on the principal for interest during the entire period. The manifest advantages are so great that we should press this matter most vigorously.

This system of making loans for agricultural purposes was first undertaken by coöperative mortgage associations in Germany. The joint stock banks, representing private capital, accepted this plan of transacting business as soon as it was demonstrated that farmers by coöperation could secure capital in the world's markets at fair terms. Both systems have been in successful operation for many years. The joint-stock banks have found land mortgage business profitable and safe from a banking standpoint. Here, again, is a question of policy presented to American bankers. Land mortgage bonds secured by mortgages payable on the amortization principle will be introduced into the United States. The future development of our Nation imperatively demands it. There are two models, each of which has been proved by years of successful experience. One is a bond issued against a first mortgage on real estate and guaranteed by an association of farmers who are the borrowers — the coöperative plan; the other is a bond issued on like security and guaranteed by a joint stock bank which is an association of lenders. Unless our existing banks adopt the latter method of financing the farmers of America, coöperative organizations among the borrowers will inevitably grow up because the principle of self-help will compel it.

I have discussed only the main principles involved. The question of personal credit falls within the domain of Federal legislation while that of land mortgage goes more directly to the state legislatures. And there will have to be many changes in many of our state laws before that business will be on a satisfactory basis.

McADOO

THE FIFTH ARTICLE OF

WHO GOVERN THE UNITED STATES

THE CONTROL OF THE CURRENCY PUBLIC OR PRIVATE?

BY

BURTON J. HENDRICK

OF ALL Mr. Wilson's Cabinet ministers, Mr. McAdoo has the most immediate interest in the deliberations of the present Congress. In a sense he is its residuary legatee. The lawmakers are engaged in solving the two great problems which have distracted the Nation since the Civil War: the tariff and the currency. In doing this they are piling up work exclusively for the Treasury Department. Mr. McAdoo will have to enforce the new tariff law. He will have another task entirely novel to an American Secretary of the Treasury, at least in times of peace: the collection of an income tax. He will probably have to install a new national banking system. This boyish-looking Secretary may therefore find that the management of a great Nation's finances is as exciting a task as the construction of the Hudson River tunnels.

And Mr. McAdoo certainly looks rather young and inexperienced for gigantic responsibilities of this kind. According to the family record he is fifty years old; judging from external evidence he is about thirty-five. He is tall and slender, measuring easily six feet two; advancing years have not written their traces in any enlargement of girth; his figure is as lithe, as well held together, as erect and graceful as a girl's. The silken, dark brown hair has not even a touch of gray; the indentations in his face are not the wrinkles of years, but the natural corrugations he has carried from boyhood. One may easily believe, therefore, what is actually a fact, that Mr. McAdoo finds his new Washington duties altogether congenial. *He is now just* beginning to live, for in sitting about a presidential table the Secretary is realizing his earliest aspirations. Corporations, railroads, tunnels, and metropolitan transit systems have been merely the interruptions of Mr. McAdoo's career; public life has always been its ultimate goal. As a child he had imagined himself as a Congressman or a Senator, a director of national policies, perhaps even a President-maker; the family traditions all naturally impelled him in this direction. In the North a college boy who entertains such ambitions usually says that he hopes "to enter politics." In the South a young man similarly inclined unblushingly announces that he "intends to become a statesman." There is a well-defined profession for those who combine the trade and a certain amount of legal practice: it is known as "law and statesmanship." That was the career which the youthful McAdoo had marked out for himself. For a number of years, in Chattanooga, Tenn., and in New York City, he actually did practise law; "statesmanship," however, circumstances compelled him to postpone. Now, at the age of fifty, he has really struck his stride.

Like four other members of Mr. Wilson's Cabinet, Mr. McAdoo is a Southerner. This renaissance of Southern activities has been generously hailed as a final bridging of the chasm of sectionalism. Perhaps more than any other member of the Cabinet does Mr. McAdoo emphasize this idea. Certainly no one has a keener reason for bitterness; probably no American family now in public life suffered more from the Civil War than Mr. McAdoo's. Marietta, Ga., where he was born in 1863, was directly in the line of Sherman's march

to the sea. Sherman came through there characteristically "careless about fire," as Henry Grady said. After the Northern troops had left, the McAdoo homestead was a mass of smoking ruins, and the whole plantation was so devastated that the family never returned to it. Naturally, the present Secretary is too young to remember all this; his mother has told many times the story, however, how she took him, a baby three weeks old, in her arms and fled before the advancing Northern army. The family took root anew in Tennessee; Mr. McAdoo's father, formerly a lawyer, had to earn a precarious living teaching school; the young man himself, early in his 'teens, had to drop his education and go to work. The name of Sherman naturally aroused little enthusiasm in Mr. McAdoo's boyish mind, but it was not until he had assumed his present duties at Washington that he realized how completely all these early prepossessions had vanished. The first thing his eyes lighted on, when he glanced out of his office windows, was the splendid equestrian statue of General William T. Sherman in front of the Treasury Building—erected by a grateful Nation for his success in destroying, among other numerous things, the McAdoo family fortunes. A few minutes afterward Mr. McAdoo wheeled thoughtlessly around in his chair; immediately back of his desk, looking benevolently down upon him, appeared the "oil painting" features of John Sherman, one of Mr. McAdoo's most illustrious predecessors in his present office. Throughout his entire four years, therefore, Mr. McAdoo will live in the closest association with the Sherman family. Apparently he finds this association no particular strain. In his New York office, two pictures long held the places of honor; one was that of Jefferson Davis, the other that of Abraham Lincoln. "Mr. Lincoln," as the Secretary calls him, has long been one of his favorite authors and a "statesman" who fulfilled his own boyhood ideal.

"But what would your father have said," remarked Mr. John Skelton Williams, another Southerner, who is Mr. McAdoo's first assistant — a man so much a Southerner that he says "kyar" for "car" — "if some one had told him that when you grew up you would be serving the 'Northern nation' as Secretary of the Treasury with this enormous statue of General Sherman constantly before your eyes!"

That forgetting and readjustment to new and worthy loyalties come easily to Mr. McAdoo is not surprising to those who know him; for his predominant trait is lovableness. As head of the tunnel company in New York, Mr. McAdoo had several thousand men under his control; his ideas of discipline were especially vigorous; yet he never had the slightest trouble with his employees. It was not until Mr. McAdoo appeared that the captious New York traveling public ever entertained any sentiment but hatred for a transit "magnate"; yet everybody had a good word for Mr. McAdoo. Even when he increased his rate of fare from five to seven cents, his patrons seemed to enjoy paying the increased amount. This general attitude of affection is not necessarily based upon any surface characteristics. Mr. McAdoo has certain traits that, in other people, might occasionally offend. He is quick-tempered; he will fly into anger at a clerk who makes a mistake in a public document, and reprimand him in words more forcible than polite. His quickness and incisiveness of speech at times amount almost to curtness; he finds no pleasure, one may be sure, in associating with fools. His whole public life has shown that he is aggressive and even pugnacious. He entered into the full enjoyment of battle in his struggle against the transit monopolists of New York; he has expressed himself with a painful and undiplomatic directness in his recent differences with the great men of Wall Street. He never makes the slightest attempt to cultivate popularity. He is the only man in the Cabinet against whom the Washington correspondents think that they have a well-founded grievance. They claim that he does not show them proper consideration; that he gives them no news; that he apparently cares nothing for the right kind of publicity. To the average astute politician one of Mr. McAdoo's earliest orders in the Treasury Department would have seemed extremely

tactless. This was that minor officials should make no announcements to the reporters; that such matter should come from his own official headquarters. A failure to cultivate the press, the politicians say, has wrecked more than one promising career. And they point to Mr. Taft as a "horrible example."

This attitude, however, illustrates precisely this point concerning Mr. McAdoo. Like everybody else the newspaper men like him. Despite the fact that they regard the Secretary as one of the most difficult problems, they do not "roast" him. For there is a touch of genius in his personality which charms and disarms all critics. It is impossible to remain in his presence for a few minutes without realizing that one is face to face with an exceptional man. Nearly all who write upon Mr. McAdoo feel called upon to discover a physical resemblance to Lincoln. As a matter of fact the only point of similarity is found in the eyes — deep, dark, indefinitely haunting, and slightly melancholy. They suggest real kindness of heart, genuine loyalty to friends, sympathy, faithfulness in all the conventional relations of life, honesty, and sincerity — in a word, the characteristics for which one human being instinctively loves another. In addition to these less easily defined qualities, Mr. McAdoo has other more outstanding traits. He is a master executive. He is capable of long periods of uninterrupted work, and has a tremendous capacity for detail. He displayed everywhere this latter quality when building his Hudson River tunnels; from the day he first conceived the idea his was the mind that directed all the company's activities; neither abstruse financial nor engineering problems had the slightest terrors for him. As part of this tunnel enterprise Mr. McAdoo constructed what was then New York's largest office building. He did not overlook a single detail in this structure. He bought the real estate, he helped the architects to plan the building and kept the closest personal supervision over its progress. In order to provide a tenant for the top floor —a problem which the real estate men regarded as insoluble — Mr. McAdoo himself organized the now flourishing Railroad Club. Here again he attended to every detail; he superintended the decorations, the purchase of furniture, the selection of table linen, silver, and china. In one respect, at least, Mr. McAdoo decided, his Railroad Club should stand preëminent: it must provide the best bread of any club in town. With this idea in mind, he invited all the master bakers to forward samples of their handiwork. One day his friends discovered Mr. McAdoo in his office surrounded by a large semi-circle of freshly baked loaves of bread. He spent an hour solemnly tasting the samples.

"The man who baked this one shall bake the Railroad Club's bread," he finally decided, indicating the premium loaf.

Mr. McAdoo is also noted for his resourcefulness; he has the happy faculty of never "getting left." He has been known to despatch a special train to bring a traveling bag which he has accidentally left behind — this incident really happened a few years ago in Arizona.

His fondness for fast automobiling amounts almost to recklessness; he has narrowly escaped death three times; and he was once arrested in Germany for "endangering a railroad train" — the offense consisting in racing with a locomotive to see which would have the right-of-way over a crossing. One day an enormous crowd collected in Church Street, New York, with eyes upturned toward a dizzy spectre several hundred feet up in the air. A large steel girder attached to a chain was making an ascent to the twenty-second story of the Hudson Terminal Building, then in its skeleton stage. Standing on this girder, with hand clasping the chain, stood Mr. McAdoo. He was making a personal inspection of his building — the only way, as things then stood, in which he could do so. Slowly he made the ascent; once arrived at the top, he picked his way about the fragmentary floor, stepping gingerly from crossbeam to crossbeam — a single inadvertent move would have plunged him to the pavement below.

"You'd better take the hod elevator down," said the foreman; "on the way down you're apt to get the 'zoop.'"

"What's that?"

"A drop that makes you feel like your stomach and nerves had fallen into your shoes."

" 'Zoop' or no 'zoop'," said Mr. McAdoo, "I'm going down the way I came up." On the return trip he did not have the girder to stand on. He placed his foot in the hook at the end of the chain and gave the signal. One of the workmen joined Mr. McAdoo and threw his arm around him as a protection.

"You go ay-way from heah," said Mr. McAdoo. He preferred to make the trip all alone and did so.

Mr. McAdoo's appointment gave the ultra-radicals their only chance to assail the Wilson Administration. He was the only man whom they could hit upon as being even remotely tainted with the Wall Street miasma. When Mr. McAdoo came to New York as a young man of twenty-nine he committed the fatal error of establishing a law office with a Wall Street address. Before and after breaking in upon the metropolis he had had something of a corporation practice; he had even organized and served as president of trolley companies in Knoxville. His great enterprise, the Hudson River tunnels, had enlisted the support of several well known capitalists; there were even malicious rumors that the house of J. P. Morgan had had something to do with floating his securities. In raising $70,000,000, in other words, Mr. McAdoo had made the mistake of seeking the people who actually had the money to lend, instead of resorting to the corner groceryman or neighborhood pawnbroker. These circumstances, however, were incriminating evidence. The new Secretary was "Wall Street's representative," the man who was to turn the Nation's coffers into an annex of the National City Bank. Certain newspapers published a story that Mr. Bryan had declined to enter the Cabinet so long as Mr. McAdoo was there, and seemed somewhat mystified when Mr. Bryan promptly branded the report as false and paid a high tribute to Mr. McAdoo's integrity. When the new Secretary appointed Mr. Williams as his assistant, Senator La Follette at once announced that the spirit of the "interlocking directorates" had acquired possession of the Treasury Department. Was not Mr. Williams a bank president, a railroad organizer, a member of the Metropolitan Club in New York, and several other similarly malevolent things?

Senator La Follette and the other critics could hardly have hit upon a more unfortunate specification. For the last ten years the favorite beast of the "progressives" in the Democratic party has been Mr. Thomas F. Ryan. In this agile gentleman Mr. Bryan has found the target for his most impassioned invective. The public has not yet forgotten that he introduced a resolution, at the Baltimore convention, which called for Mr. Ryan's expulsion from that assembly. In his antagonism to this distinguished Virginian, Mr. Bryan could hardly find more sympathetic associates than Mr. McAdoo and Mr. Williams. Both men have spent the larger part of their business lives combating Mr. Ryan, and such success as both have achieved has been won in the teeth of Mr. Ryan's opposition. Mr. McAdoo fought his way into New York against the political and financial antagonism of the Metropolitan and the Interborough syndicates; when Mr. Williams was engaged in organizing the Seaboard Air Line Railroad, his idea being to make the property a Southern-owned road, independent of Wall Street, he found the Ryan influence everywhere arrayed against him.

Mr. McAdoo's experiences with Mr. Ryan and his associates have the utmost public interest at this time, for they shed much light upon the inevitable question: Who, under the Wilson Administration, "owns" the Treasury Department? Mr. McAdoo had not gone far in his transit enterprises in New York when he found himself, almost without intending it, a "factor" in the general transit situation — a competitor of the Metropolitan Street Railway Company, the elevated lines, and the subway. He was an interloper, an upstart, a man who had arrogantly encroached upon territory long since preempted by Thomas F. Ryan, William C. Whitney, P. A. B. Widener, August Belmont, and other important people. Many "outside" interests, at different

times, had attempted to gain a foothold, but without success. Mr. McAdoo had worked so quietly, however, and his plans had enlarged so naturally and so unobtrusively that he had practically settled himself upon several important thoroughfares before the entrenched monopolists actually realized what was going on. They decided at once to take the usual means to call him off, and so one day Mr. McAdoo was invited to lunch with Mr. Herbert H. Vreeland, the president of Mr. Ryan's Metropolitan Street Railway.

"Well, what are we here for?" said Mr. Vreeland, after the preliminary courtesies were over.

"I happen to be your guest," replied Mr. McAdoo. "I suppose you know why you wanted to meet me."

"Yes," answered Mr. Vreeland. "It's about your tunnel. How much will you sell the whole thing for?"

In a few words Mr. McAdoo informed his friend that his company was not for sale at any price.

Mr. Vreeland opened wide his eyes. "Why, Mr. McAdoo," he said, "you don't suppose for a moment that we are going to let you build that tunnel, do you?"

"I didn't know you had anything to do about it," replied this innocent young lawyer from Tennessee. "I will withdraw my application to the Rapid Transit Commission and present it to the Metropolitan Street Railway."

"Oh, I don't quite mean that," said Mr. Vreeland. "Only no one we have ever opposed has yet succeeded in building a railroad in this town."

Mr. McAdoo rose abruptly from the half-eaten luncheon. "We'll prove your rule by becoming the exception," he declared. "I am going to build that line, Mr. Vreeland, whether you people like it or not."

And he did, though only after the strongest opposition. The Metropolitan attempted to depress his credit; it organized "citizens' associations" to appear before the authorities against the McAdoo schemes; and tried to get impossible conditions in his franchises. Mr. McAdoo won by virtue of a new force which was *then making itself* felt in popular government — the force of public opinion. His personality laid hold of the popular mind, and won for him in a struggle that lasted for several years.

Mr. McAdoo battled not only against Mr. Thomas F. Ryan, but against another famous leader and financial supporter of the old Democratic party — Mr. August Belmont. His tunnel system was an open challenge to the Belmont Interborough Subway. These things, however, were minor matters; he really seriously interfered with the Interborough when he took a hand in the famous subway dispute of three years ago. This story cannot be told in detail; the point was that the city's transit needs were pressing, that the existing lines were greatly overcrowded, and that elaborate extensions to the subway system were required. A situation that had been a scandal for several years reached a crisis in the fall of 1910. Apparently, however, the Interborough system dominated the field. The Interborough flatly refused to build any more lines, except on terms that were extremely disadvantageous to New York. But the need was so pressing that many good citizens, particularly Mayor Gaynor, advised the acceptance of these terms. The fact that no possible competitor against the Interborough appeared strengthened this position. At the precise moment when the Interborough was about to pick the plum, something unexpected happened — Mr. McAdoo, just recovering from an operation for appendicitis, offered to build $300,000,000 worth of subways on terms immensely more favorable than the Interborough's. This timely offer entirely changed the situation. Competitors now sprung up on several sides. In the proceedings that rapidly followed, Mr McAdoo's company retired from the field; but he had done the city a remarkable service. The fact that New York's subway problem is now satisfactorily adjusted, that the city is safeguarded from the Interborough monopoly, is largely owing to his interference.

Whatever Mr. McAdoo's prepossessions in his present position may be, therefore, he can hardly be catalogued as "Wall Street's man." The ideals of the Wilson

Administration necessarily exclude any direct participation by any influence such as Wall Street in the government of the country. The Administration primarily stands for the liberation of the Government from any control except that of the people themselves. This policy affects the Treasury Department with a peculiar emphasis. Nor, in order to sympathize with this point of view, is it necessary to accept as gospel all the wild talk which has become so popular in recent years about "Wall Street," the "Money Trust," and the concentration of capital. Upon this theme the demagogues have certainly played with a pretty liberal hand. After making all allowances for this state of mind, however, there is a settled conviction that there is a great and unhealthy concentration of credit in Wall Street. Certainly after such a reputable financial authority as Mr. George F. Baker has publicly acknowledged as much, outsiders can hardly be expected to entertain any other view. It is similarly true that certain great New York financiers have had altogether too much influence in the Treasury Department. Many good people doubtless sincerely believe that our large financial institutions should dominate the Treasury; should virtually name the Secretary, constantly advise him in his official acts, serve as mediators or connecting links between the Government and the business world. It is hardly necessary at this time to discuss this attitude; it is sufficient to say, as a matter of current history, that President Wilson does not accept this idea. The Democratic Administration represents the opposite conception. Under the new order of things, Wall Street's "ownership" of the Treasury Department, however extensive or insignificant that "ownership" may have been, is to end.

Mr. McAdoo certainly has not hesitated to accept this conception of his duties. Whatever success or failure he may make, so long as he holds his present office he will be Secretary of the Treasury. He repudiates any idea that he is "making war" on Wall Street; his last ambition is to figure as a baiter of the "money trust." The fact remains, however, that his official life, so far, has been spent in a duel with the large banking interests in New York. An early incident, slight in itself, signalized this new state of affairs. For several years a young woman, a salaried employee of the National City Bank of New York, had occupied a desk in the office of the Comptroller of the Currency. Her duties were to obtain information concerning the condition of national banks, as disclosed by the visits of the Comptroller. There seemed to be nothing necessarily nefarious in this activity; this information, of course, was public property; in due course the Treasury Department published it. From one point of view, her activities might have been regarded as ordinary business enterprise; the purpose was to obtain certain legitimate information in advance of the National City's competitors. Mr. McAdoo, however, immediately dislodged this young woman and, in a newspaper statement, stigmatized her presence in the Treasury Department as "irregular and improper." He had no objection to any statistical bureau maintained in the City Bank; he regarded it as a scandal, however, that its representative should have desk room in a government building.

No Secretary of the Treasury had publicly lectured this great Standard Oil institution before. It was the first time in a hundred years, its officers said, that it had been called upon publicly to defend its honor. Bad as was the feeling which this created, however, it was nothing compared with the unpopularity of Mr. McAdoo's next official act. This was a notification that all treasury depositories must pay two per cent. interest on government balances. Banks all over the country, and especially the large banks in New York, had had the free use of many millions of United States deposits for many years. In this way the Government was throwing away money. In less than a generation, Mr. McAdoo figured, the Government had lost $33,000,000; the thing was not only bad morals, it was bad business. There seemed no reason why these banks should not pay interest on government deposits; they paid interest on deposits made by other governments than their own. One of the banks which

most vociferously objected to the new ruling, for example, was at the very moment of its objecting carrying a large balance for a foreign government, upon which it was paying 2 or more per cent. interest. Several of Mr. McAdoo's predecessors had approached the problem and threatened to take action; none of them, however, had accomplished anything. His single act has saved the American people more than $1,000,000 a year — the operation is as simple as finding the money. For the banks, when faced with the possibility of losing the deposits, are apparently willing to pay a reasonable interest. Of the 559 banks that carry treasury balances, only seven have refused to pay this interest, and among them are the National City and the Bank of Commerce of New York. Since issuing this new order, Mr. McAdoo has placed an additional $60,000,000 on deposit, and the eagerness with which the national banks in all parts of the country have scampered to obtain a share, even at the penalty of paying interest, shows that Mr. McAdoo's action was a wise stroke.

As a result of these and other acts, however, the Wilson Administration is enormously unpopular in Wall Street. It is so unpopular that a "Wilson panic" has been freely predicted by enemies of the Administration. Whatever the outsiders may think, and whatever the facts may be, the belief exists in Washington that, under existing conditions, the great money powers of this country can produce a panic almost at will. Most financial authorities ridicule this idea; whether it is true or false is not the point; the fact remains that this conception so generally prevails that it exerts an important influence upon business conditions. Many impartial observers believe that "Wall Street" so cordially detests the existing régime that it will go to almost any extreme, even the artificial stimulation of a panic, to discredit it. The fear of this "panic" has given business men many sleepless nights. If human foresight and ability can prevent any such convulsion, the Wilson Administration can be depended upon to make use of it. Naturally, Mr. McAdoo *is the chief Administration* agency in this work. One of his most important rôles has been that of a "panic-preventer." He has already made two important moves in this direction. The fear of panic conditions arises largely from that autumnal phenomenon known as "moving the crops." One of the curiosities of American life is that great national prosperity should necessarily be regarded as a signal for national disaster. Every fall our abounding harvests send shivers up the spines of our business men. The more abundant the yield — the more wheat, corn, cotton, and potatoes there may be — the greater this anxiety becomes. These crops must be "moved" from farm to market; this "moving" process takes money, which the farmers have to borrow. They borrow it from their banks; their banks get the money from the larger banks; and so the ultimate draft is made upon the big institutions in Chicago and New York. Thus the harvest season is dependent upon the large reservoirs of liquid capital in the great money centres. There is an idea, which has greatly influenced American politics, that the big banks "squeeze" the little farmers at these critical periods. Much of this feeling is doubtless irrational; monetary experts believe that our "unelastic" currency system in itself sufficiently explains this annual stringency. Nevertheless, business men anxiously await this fall "crop moving" season, and are relieved when the crisis is safely passed.

In early June of this year, the usual monitory signs appeared — this time intensified by other disquieting symptoms. Everywhere the utmost pessimism prevailed as to the outlook. There was no great anxiety about the crops themselves, or other signs of widespread prosperity; the money situation, however, seemed especially acute. Widely published statements, some of them emanating from the most reputable and conservative quarters in New York, virtually warned the public to prepare for an approaching storm. The tariff bill, we were told, was bound to create a readjustment in American industrialism; Europe would presently be calling upon us for large exportations of gold; the approaching movement of the crops presented a problem of peculiar

difficulty. The atmosphere quite closely resembled that which precedes a financial disturbance; the banks were closely accumulating their resources; the discount rate for "call money" in Wall Street advanced materially. Naturally these symptoms of impending disaster seriously disturbed the friends of the Wilson administration. They doubtless had much to do in persuading the President to push the reform of the currency at the special session; so far as the basis of financial uncertainty was artificial — that is, the lack of currency enough to provide for the legitimate need of business — the President determined that this uncertainty should be removed.

These circumstances also called for immediate attention from Mr. McAdoo. Was there any act of his that could ease up the situation? Did his office contain any resources that could legitimately be used to fight off the spectre of impending panic? Thanks to certain almost forgotten legislation of the Republican era, Mr. McAdoo found the machinery ready to his hand. Immediately following the panic of 1907 Congress had passed an emergency currency measure known as the Aldrich-Vreeland bill. This was intended merely as a stopgap, a law that should remain on the statute books only until Congress should adopt definitive currency legislation — in fact, the Aldrich-Vreeland law expires, by limitation, next year. It authorizes the Secretary of the Treasury, when conditions appear to justify such an act, to issue $500,000,000 temporary currency based upon national and municipal bonds and commercial paper of the highest character. Mr. McAdoo now issued a reassuring public statement. There was no occasion for worry or excitement, he said. Under existing conditions there could be no financial stringency in the fall. The Treasury Department would take all necessary precautions — there should be all the money required for legitimate business and agricultural needs. And then he called the attention of Wall Street and the farmers to something they had apparently forgotten — the half a billion dollars in currency lying unused in the Treasury vaults. He stood ready at any time, said Mr. McAdoo, to issue as much of this

A PLEASANT PERSONALITY

WHICH HAS WON FRIENDS DESPITE THE FACT THAT MR. McADOO HAS NOT TRIED TO BE POPULAR AND HAS NOT "OPENED" HIS DEPARTMENT TO THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE PRESS

gency currency as the situation called His announcement had an immedi- nd mollifying effect upon the money ket. The discount rate for call money ew York dropped from three to one one-fifth per cent. Such indications here may have been of approaching ble at once disappeared.

August, Mr. McAdoo took action was even more direct. This time he not merely hold forth the policy of sury relief — he actually furnished it. is significant of the governmental atti- , not only in the actual use of Federal for the relief of business, but in the nding circumstances. There is nothing icularly new in the deposit of treasury ey in a time of financial stringency. money, however, with the exception of etary Shaw's deposit of $26,000,000, almost invariably been placed in the ts of the large banking interests in York. The most recent case of kind took place in the panic of 1907. ral banking institutions had closed doors; long lines of anxious depositors besieging the paying-tellers of others; inancial giants of the community were ing midnight sessions in the hope of talling a total ruin. At this crisis etary Cortelyou deposited $25,000,000 ew York, which was distributed as loans, and prevented a wholly dis- us collapse on the stock exchange. significant points are that that Ad- stration did not act until the panic tion had actually arrived and then out its assistance through the medi- f Wall Street.

the early part of August this year, the skies were fairly clear, and the hood of a disaster in the fall only a bility, Mr. McAdoo placed $50,000,000 leposit for use in the crop moving n. He did not place this money in Street; indeed, he specifically ex- d the Eastern banks from participa- in the deposits; all of it, he announced, d go to the banks of the South and — the place from which the cotton, t, and corn were actually to be moved. rder to obtain expert advice, Mr. doo summoned a council of represen- e bankers — a council from which the larger New York banking institutions were explicitly shut out.

When, ever before, at least in the last fifty years, has a Secretary of the Treasury sought expert banking advice and excluded the big financiers of New York? Hyper-sensitive critics may denounce this action as pure demagogism; inasmuch, however, as the money was intended exclusively for the use of agricultural states, there seems a valid reason for consulting exclusively the bankers from these sections. The whole proceeding, however, indicates that, in

AT THE BALTIMORE CONVENTION
MR. McADOO, SENATOR SAULSBURY, AND MR. DAVIES OF WISCONSIN

the Treasury Department as in other branches of the Government, the masses of the people are to receive the chief consideration. What Mr. McAdoo has done tunes in harmoniously with the general Wilson programme. The same idea dominates the new currency legislation. Here, again, the ruling principle is that the Government itself, and not certain private banking interests, is to control the issue of money. It is once more the Wilson idea of democracy — the separation of the "privileged classes" from the use of governmental agencies for their private profit. In the

A GOOD OUTDOOR MAN AT FIFTY

battle against the new currency bill, it is upon this single issue that the lines are drawn. Everybody is apparently agreed upon the central principles of the bill.

The Wall Street capitalists who dislike it most heartily do not criticise it from the standpoint of sound banking. It will give the Nation something it has never had—an "elastic" currency; that is, a currency that expands and contracts according to the demands of business, and that will thus serve as a safeguard against unnecessary panics. As security this currency will rest upon commercial paper of the highest quality — security which, according to the experience of other conservative countries, has been proved abundantly sound. In all banking aspects the legislation is ideal — a real triumph for the Administration. But Mr. Wilson,

HIS FONDNESS FOR FAST AUTOMOBILING AMOUNTS ALMOST TO RECKLESSNESS

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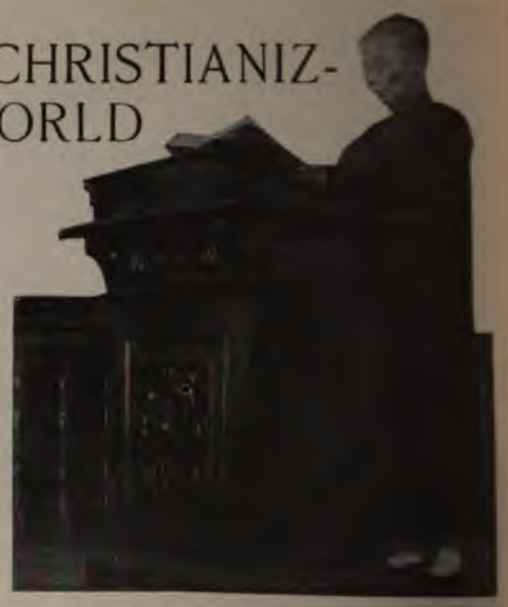
WITH HIS TWO SONS ON THE "WYOMING"

Mr. McAdoo, Senator Owen, and Congressman Glass, who formulated this bill, have insisted upon one cardinal point: a Federal Board, appointed by the President, is to control the issue of this currency. The large bankers insist that the bankers themselves shall dominate the situation. They believe in a completely centralized authority — only they insist that they themselves be this authority. This attitude shows how hopelessly irreconcilable are the viewpoints of the Wilson Administration and the interests which are usually known as "Wall Street." In many details Mr. Wilson and Mr. McAdoo may yield; upon this fundamental principle, however, they stand absolutely firm. The criticism is that the Federal Board will be composed merely of "politicians," who will use their power for personal and party ends. What the Administration is trying to do, however, is to erect a new Federal body, like the Supreme Court or the Interstate Commerce Commission; if "politics" is kept out of these tribunals, as it surely is, they believe that there is little chance that the Federal Banking Board will degenerate.

For better or for worse, the United States is in for four years of a new governmental experiment: the exclusion, from the use of governmental power, of all representatives of particular interests, business or political. The currency bill is merely another manifestation of this new ruling providence. It, is perhaps, as good an opportunity as one could have to test the basic soundness of the Wilson idea.

MR. McADOO'S COUNTRY HOME AT IRVINGTON-ON-THE-HUDSON

THE BUSINESS OF CHRISTIANIZING THE WORLD



THE CONQUESTS OF THE MISSIONARIES IN THEIR ORGANIZED ASSAULT UPON HEATHENDOM AND RIVAL RELIGIONS—WHAT BUSINESS METHODS HAVE DONE TO MAKE THE WORK OF FOREIGN MISSIONS ONE OF THE MOST FAR-REACHING INFLUENCES IN ALL HISTORY—HEALING AS A BASIS OF CONVERSION

BY
CARL CROW

WE ARE living now in the militant age of Christianity. An army numbered by the tens of thousands, all pledged to devote their lives and entire energies to extending the borders of Christendom, is stationed throughout the land of the heathen. They are working toward an aim beside which all other world movements appear small, for it is nothing less than the complete Christianization of the world. For almost two thousand years the borders of Christendom have been expanding and Christians have dreamed of a time when there would be no more heathen lands. Now they are setting about the realization of their dreams and are pouring men and money into China, India, Africa, and all other heathen lands. It is a movement which has been gaining momentum for centuries, attracting a constantly widening circle of support until now it is aided with equal enthusiasm by school children who give their pennies to the mission societies and by captains of industry who find in foreign missions work a subject big enough to command their keenest interest. The missionary workers are changing the religious map of the world so rapidly that some of them now look forward confidently to the time when their ideal will be accomplished and the brotherhood of man will have a new

AN ENGLISH CHURCH IN INDIA
THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL MISSION CHURCH AT HYDERABAD

meaning, for all people will then be of the Christian religion.

This modern crusade has long since passed the stage of doubt and experiment, and has taken its place among the biggest of present day world movements. For its support the Protestant churches spend more than $30,000,000 annually. If to this we add the very large sums devoted to missionary work by the Roman and Greek Catholic churches, and the many private enterprises of various kinds, we find that the annual amount expended is not far from $100,000,000. With the present increasing interest, it is not improbable that this sum will be doubled in a few years, as it has been doubled many times since the work was begun. Equally impressive are the figures showing the hosts engaged in the work. The number of missionaries is not far from 50,000, and for every missionary there are six native helpers, the nucleus of a growing company of Christian soldiers captained by the foreign missionary. Above them are the generals, the officers of the great foreign mission boards who, from the busiest districts of New York, Edinburgh, Boston, and London, direct the operations of the soldiers. In addition to these are the countless contributors whose nickels and dimes make up the great sum that is spent annually. There are more than five hundred interlocking societies in America and Europe whose sole object is the propagation of foreign missions, and of these societies ten have annual budgets exceeding one million dollars. On the membership rolls are scores of millions, representing all strata of wealth, society, and intelligence, all of whom contribute their part toward the work. In nearly every respect the missionary propaganda is the most far-reaching organization the world has ever seen. It touches every country and every class and is an element which cannot be ignored in world politics, philanthropy, education, science, and commerce. The teaching of missionaries made possible the establishment of the Republic of

GETTING READY FOR CHURCH

CHRISTIAN CHINESE PLAITING ONE ANOTHER'S QUEUES ON SUNDAY MORNING

AT THE HEART OF THE WAR WITH MOHAMMEDANISM

FOLLOWERS OF THE PROPHET AT PRAYER BEFORE THE MOSQUE IN DELHI, INDIA

China; their hospitals have saved the lives of hundreds of thousands, and educated ten times as many more. They are far in advance of the traders in the dark places of the world, teaching the barbarian how to contribute his share to commerce and civilization.

A little less than a thousand years ago devout but often unholy adventurers led bands of nominal Christians into the lands of the heathen to rescue the Holy Grail and to restore the Holy Sepulchre to Christian ownership. For almost two centuries crusading, and the cracking of heathen heads, was the sport of Europe. Millions of dollars were spent and millions of lives lost, largely to give Jews and Moslems an abiding reason for the hatred of all things Christian. Much heathen loot was brought back to the adornment of European cathedrals. But the heathen are still in possession of the Holy Land, and this effort of the Church in arms left no impression. Then the grand folly of the crusades ended and the Christians quarreled among themselves while the heathen continued to grow in numbers and in strength. After a time the Roman Catholic church entered the mission field with an evangelizing army which has never deserted though it was alone in the work for centuries. The Protestant denominations declined to be interested in foreign missions.

It is only a little more than a hundred years ago that William Carey, the English cobbler who aroused the present interest of Protestant churches in foreign mis-

CHRISTIAN CONVERTS WAITING FOR BAPTISM
PART OF A CONGREGATION OF 1,700 PEOPLE IN THE GUZERAT DISTRICT OF INDIA

sions, had the effrontery to enquire at a Baptist assembly if Christ's command to the apostles to go "into all the world and preach the gospel" did not apply at that time. The president curtly replied:

"Sit down, young man; when it pleases God to convert the heathen, He will do it without your help."

A little later the proposal to send missionaries to India was met by the ultimatum that the Honorable East India Company considered "the sending out of missionaries into our Eastern possessions to be the maddest, most extravagant, most costly, most indefensible project which has ever been suggested by a moon-struck religious fanatic. Such a scheme is pernicious, imprudent, useless, harmful, dangerous, profitless, fantastic. It strikes against all reason and sound policy, it brings the peace and safety of our possessions into peril." The author of such an opinion would be laughed at to-day, but a century ago there were few people to disagree.

At this time there was opposition to the missionary movement outside, and indifference to it inside the church circles. When the Church Missionary Society of London was organized by a few pioneers, it could find no English clergymen willing to go on foreign mission work, and for sixteen years was represented only by foreigners. In 1796 the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland passed a resolution that "to spread abroad the knowledge of the gospel amongst barbarous and heathen nations seems to be highly pre-

posterous — whilst there remains at home a single individual without the means of religious knowledge, to propagate it abroad would be improper and absurd." Fourteen years later, when the American Board of Missions was organized, many opposed it on the plausible ground that America had no religion to spare. It was not until 1813 that the English Parliament allowed missionaries to go to India.

Once started, the spirit of the modern crusade spread rapidly. The Church Missionary Society was established in London in 1799; the British and Foreign Bible Society followed in 1804; the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions in 1810, and in 1814 the organization which later became known as the Baptist Missionary Union, though for a good many years it labored under the long name; "The General Convention of the Baptist Denomination in the United States of America for Foreign Missions and other Important Objects Relating to the Redeemer's Kingdom."

In 1805, there were five missionary publications in America struggling to create a popular sentiment in favor of missionary work. Even then opposition to the missionary idea was so strong that Samuel J. Mills and other students at Williams College who desired to go into mission work drew up the constitution of their organization in cipher, and ventured their proposals with a certain amount of stealth. The first year's receipts of the American Board lacked 48 cents of amounting to $1,000, and in 1813 the whole amount spent on foreign missions by all the Protestant churches in the world did not exceed $200,000. In 1819, so feeble was the interest that the American contributions to foreign missions amounted to only $37,521, a sum less than that now annually given by Christian organizations in lands which were totally heathen at that time.

In 1812 the first five missionaries sailed from America, their objective point being India, where for months they were shifted

JAPANESE CHILDREN IN A CHRISTIAN KINDERGARTEN AT KANAZAWA

THE MORNING THIRD-READER CLASS IN A JAPANESE CHRISTIAN SCHOOL

from one port to another, narrowly escaping expulsion by the authorities of the East India Company. Only sixteen years before, the missionary ship *Duff* sailed from England with twenty-nine missionaries, the first Protestant body to leave that country.

During the first half of the last century this movement, which started so haltingly, was taken up by one church after another, and in the latter part of the century the last stragglers joined in the movement. Now, with the spirit of the crusaders, but with more worthy aims, all Christendom

A CLASS IN CHINESE WRITING IN A CHRISTIAN SCHOOL IN PEKING

confounded. They laughed at the
of mission work in India and China,
native Christians in both places are
bered by the millions. In the amount
oney expended, the number of people
ged in or directly interested in the
, and in the practical results accom-
ed, we are out-crusading the crusades
making their stupendous enterprises
petty in comparison.

ll there is an enormous amount of
ance and misinformation regarding
nissionary movement. The popular
re of a missionary is that of a man
a Bible in his hand, a street corner
gelist, or a modern Peter the Hermit,
g to set on fire the souls of his hearers
s fiery eloquence. That is a picture
belongs to the hell-and-brimstone
f Christianity. Perhaps the heathen
grown more stubborn since St.
ck, the escaped slave and swineherd,
from Scotland to Ireland and turned
whole country Christian, or when St.
face, in a busy lifetime, baptized
oo pagans. No such easily converted
nen or pagans exist to-day, and the
gn mission boards which conduct this
rn crusade have ceased to look for

CONVEYANCES IN THE MISSION FIELD

R PICTURE: CHRISTIAN MISSIONARIES AT NAKON, SIAM, PREPARING FOR A TOUR OF THEIR STATIONS.
ER PICTURE: REV. W. C. JOHNSTON AND HIS WIFE, TRAVELING IN AFRICA WITH NATIVE CARRIERS

AN AMERICAN MISSIONARY BISHOP IN WEST AFRICA
BISHOP JOSEPH CRANE HARTZELL AT ZUESSUA IN PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA

miracles. Theirs is a business-like organization, managed by successful business men who apply to it the same principles which have succeeded in their own enterprises. In a project so full of the romance of religion one would expect business to be submerged by sentiment, but instead one finds the two working in a remarkably efficient combination.

"Mere piety will not make a missionary any more than mere patriotism will make an ambassador," says Dr. Arthur J. Brown, secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, in his interesting book "The Foreign Missionary." Again he says: "No other profession guards its doors more carefully. It is a mistake to suppose that any nice, apparently pious youth can become a foreign missionary. If any one imagines that weaklings or milksops can be appointed, he might apply for appointment and see. The boards do not send the pale enthusiast or romantic young lady to the foreign field, but the sturdy, practical man of affairs, the woman of poise and sense and character." Any one who spends a half hour in studying the safeguards placed

AN AMERICAN MISSION IN INDIA
A BUNGALOW IN THE CENTRAL PROVINCES THAT COST ONLY $100 TO BUILD AND EQUIP

PRINTER'S INK IN THE MISSION WAR

THE ENGLISH TYPE-ROOM IN THE PRESBYTERIAN MISSION PRESS IN SHANGHAI, WHICH IS A CENTRE OF WORK IN A WORLD-WIDE RELIGIOUS MOVEMENT

about the selection of missionaries will have a new appreciation of the approximate truth of the statement that it is easier to get an appointment to the diplomatic service of the Government than to the foreign mission field.

There was a time, not so long ago, when any one who felt that he was "called to the work" could apply to the foreign mission board with a fair chance of appointment. Then were sent to the foreign mission field many men who were long

USING CHINA'S INVENTION TO OVERTHROW CHINA'S RELIGION

NATIVE COMPOSITORS SETTING UP MISSION PUBLICATIONS WITH THE MORE THAN TWENTY THOUSAND DIFFERENT CHARACTERS THAT ARE USED IN CHINESE TYPE-SETTING

IN THE STRONGHOLDS OF THE OLD RELIGIONS
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suspicious of too much enthusiasm, which may wear itself out in the tedious wait for the first results of his work in the field.

Of course the missionary must be a true Christian, but the boards are not inclined to be very troublesome on the question of doctrinal views. They demand only that the views of the missionary be such that he can work in harmony with others representing the same organization. He must be free from debt. The salaries paid are barely enough to live on and the missionary cannot afford to send money home for the payment of debts or the support of dependent relatives. The average missionary spends four years in a good university in preparation for his work. If he goes out as a medical missionary, his school course is lengthened by two or three years. After his arrival at the station to which he is assigned, he spends from two to four years in mastering the language of the country, and only then is he really able to begin his work.

If any proof were needed of the really superior abilities of the missionaries, it is to be found in their contributions to science. We owe to them practically all our present knowledge of foreign languages. The vast extent of their work along this line can be appreciated by the fact that the Bible is now published in more than 600 tongues, though in the year of the American Revolution it was known in less than seventy. Set yourself to learn 100 Chinese characters, or a page from an Arabic dictionary, and you will have a new respect for the missionary who is required to master one of these languages. Yet the task of translating the Bible into these great but difficult languages is easy compared to that faced by other workers who have found tribes with a language so poor that even the simple message of Christianity could not be told in it. Here the missionary has undertaken the tedious task of building up and enriching the language, adding new words or new combinations of words. After years of work of this kind, he is able to tell the story he came to tell. I know a missionary who has been working among the Eskimos for eight years and has not yet been rewarded with a convert, but he is not discouraged. In a few more years he will have educated the natives to the point where they will be able to understand his message, and then he expects results.

It is not alone in philology that the missionaries have distinguished their profession. It was a missionary who first explored Africa and gave the first impetus toward the development and enlightenment of that great dark continent. Within the last few months a missionary made the first complete ascent of Mt. McKinley. A Yankee missionary manufactured the first set of movable types for the Chinese, thereby making possible the development of the Chinese newspaper. And we who live in the Orient owe the jinrikisha to the inventive genius of another. More than twenty-five years ago the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions was able to fill a large book of five hundred pages with a record of the contributions of missionaries to science and a second volume of equal size would be necessary to bring the record up to date.

The conversion of the heathen is, of course, the first and chief object of missionary work, but there are many things other than preaching which the missionary is called upon to do. With almost every mission station a school is established and in some places, as in China, a complete educational system has been worked out, ranging from the primary schools to a group of universities in the principal cities, where students are given a course similar to that offered by our state universities. Many of these schools were established despite more or less violent local opposition, but their present importance may be measured by the fact that nearly two million students attend them. This figure does not include the millions which attend Sunday school.

The medical phase of the mission work is of more recent development, but it is one which has proved of great importance. The missions now maintain more than 1,000 hospitals, and the medical missionaries, who gain the hearts of the heathen by healing their ills, are to be numbered by the thousands. It was in one of these medical missionary stations that Dr. Sun Yat Sen, who organized the

successful revolution against the Manchu dynasty of China, received his first training. He is only one of many who have become prominent in their own countries largely through training in the mission schools. In the new Flowery Republic, a surprisingly large number of city and provincial officials are graduates of the mission schools.

Missionaries no longer hope for brilliant and immediate success. Every one goes to his station prepared to spend a lifetime there. On his arrival he is usually mistrusted both as a foreigner and as the teacher of a strange religion. He must live there for years before he gains the respect and confidence of the natives, and not until then is he able to look for any definite results. Moffett was in Bechuanaland 11 years before he baptized his first convert; Carey waited 7 years for his first convert in India, and John Beck was in Greenland 5 years before there was any indication of interest in his work. Missionaries worked in Uganda 4 years with no visible results. Morrison labored in more or less secrecy in China for 27 years, praying for the time when he would be able to hold public meetings, and died without seeing that accomplished. Gilmour preached 20 years in Mongolia before he could report visible results. The first Zulu was converted after 15 years of work.

In the end the missionary has always won against the opposition or indifference of the heathen. The present King of Uganda and the chief of Bechuanaland are Christians. The Christians in India are numbered by the millions, and the missionaries in China are now looking forward with a great deal of confidence to the time when they will be able to call that country Christian. In 1900 there was tragic testimony of the success of foreign mission work in China, for during the Boxer outrages more than 30,000 Christian converts chose to be killed, rather than deny their faith. A missionary was killed and eaten in the Fijis as late as 1867, but others took up the work, and now the dreaded Fijis are sending their own missionaries to less enlightened neighboring islands. In Japan, where for many years a proclamation was posted in every village forbidding t of Christianity, the numb Christians has increased 70 ten years. They now n 200,000. Mission work was in Korea in 1882. Five yea were only seven converts, but in Korea at the present time by the hundreds of thousa Korea is so rapidly becom that the rulers of Japan over the progress of the m

The modern crusade lon the point where it could be c spare time of a few pastor the study of some church. business which demands an attention of big business me T. Underwood, president o wood Typewriter Company, Presbyterian Board of Man Edgar Welch, president o Grape Juice Company, is the Methodist Board; M Leaycraft, a prominent Ne estate dealer and director c concerns, devotes a part of h management of the Americ ciety. Mr. S. W. Woodwa ington merchant, helps dir of the American Baptist Fo Society. Among many othe a part of their time to mi are: Mr. F. W. Parker, Chicago lawyer; Mr. Joh president of the Maryland C pany; Mr. H. K. Carroll, Commissioner to Porto Ri Mr. John Gribbel, the Phila facturer and capitalist; Phillips Hall, president of t Company; Mr. George W shoe manufacturer; Mr. Jo the Memphis banker; Mr. head of the Philadelphi agency of that name; M Capen, the Boston busin A. W. McKinney, the Chi turer. The list might be fill this page and the next.

New York is the most ministrative centre of the c business in New York is c more up-to-date methods.

·ge office space, telephones, adding ines, card indexes, and all the other ınces that quicken the speed of rn business. The Presbyterian mis- are directed from the modern Presby- Building at 156 Fifth Avenue. In borly proximity is the Methodist ing. That is the centre of the ɔnary movement and within a short ; are the headquarters of dozens of organizations. Other societies ain headquarters in Boston, London, Edinburgh, but in the membership he amount of money expended New deserves to be considered the ɔnary centre of the world. Other tant mission offices are in Philadel- Baltimore, Cincinnati, Richmond, lashville.

feted by the ebb and flow of the :ain tides of beneficence, the crusade :ss is conducted with such fine ion to detail that it can truthfully id that no trust company handles money at less expense than the n board. The cost of administra- ı many boards is 5 per cent., so that :ry dollar given for foreign mission 95 cents finally reaches the mission Clever devices have been adopted vent the uncertainty of income which of the greatest difficulties the boards to overcome. In former days the n boards prayed and then waited ılly for the arrival of remittances the faithful. They haven't quit ıg now, but when they get through their prayers they go after the ıl with a follow-up system that no nent-payment book concern would hamed of. Weekly and monthly ıls, booklets, posters, and moving es are used to keep the church mem- ıf America informed concerning the :ss of the work in the field. Sus- interest at home and sustained ɜiasm in the field are the two ideals ı which the mission boards are ntly working. Abroad, they want logged plodder, rather than the :nthusiast; and at home they prefer :gularly given widow's mite to the ɔnal gold piece. So they have, great success, adopted the instal- ment plan of mission support. Pledges are solicited for regular weekly contributions, no matter how small they may be. The publicity given to large bequests by wealthy men who are interested in mission work has led to the popular belief that it is a diversion of the benevolent rich. On the contrary its chief support comes from the small but regular contributions of the unknown millions.

As the crusaders go farther each year into the territory of the enemy, the time is approaching when they will undertake what many believe will be the crucial battle to decide whether this is to be a Christian world, or only part Christian and part Mohammedan. A little more than a century ago Carey wrote his famous "Enquiry," in which he declared:

"The inhabitants of the world amount to 731,000,000, 420,000,000 of whom are still in pagan darkness; 130,000,000 the followers of Mahomet; 100,000,000 Catholics; 44,000,000 Protestants; 30,000,000 of the Greek and Armenian churches, and perhaps 7,000,000 of Jews."

According to that estimate, which has been generally accepted as correct, only 23 per cent. of the world was Christian and about 17 per cent. was Mohammedan. Another estimate made in 1786 placed the number of Christians at 200,000,000, or 20 per cent. of the total population of the world. A century later, in 1886, the total population was given as 1450 millions, of whom 430,000,000 were Christians, making up about 30 per cent. of the total. Bishop W. Boyd Carpenter says that at the beginning of the nineteenth century there were 200,000,000 and now there are 500,000,000, one third of the total population. In other words, during the century Christianity increased twice as rapidly as the population of the world.

Only recently have Christians come to realize that practically all this increase which can be credited to missionary work has been at the expense of those whom Carey described as being "in pagan darkness." In the century dozens of barbarous pagan religions have disappeared and hundreds have been seriously weakened. Only in museums can now be seen the gods which thousands worshipped a

century ago, but which are now honored only by the student. Buddhism, Taoism, and many other religions are declining in power, with deserted temples and deserting priests. If Christianity could take credit for all this, the glory of the modern crusaders would be greatly increased. Unfortunately, this is not possible. While Christianity has been advancing in some parts of the world, Mohammedanism has been keeping step in other parts. The followers of the Prophet, who in the first thousand years of the Christian era "carried the Crescent triumphant from the Euphrates to the Straits of Gibraltar" and wiped out of existence tens of thousands of Christian churches, are again recognized as the most serious and menacing enemies of Christianity. In African mission work, Moslems have been more active and more successful than Christians. There are now 50 million Mohammedans in Africa and Christian missionaries who open up new stations there often find that the Moslem missionaries have preceded them. In the sifting of the centuries, only three religions remain unweakened: Christianity, Mohammedanism, and Judaism. Of these two, Christianity and Mohammedanism have constantly made further advances.

When their faith was young and vigorous, the Moslems spread their political power rapidly, capturing Syria, Persia, and Egypt within fifteen years after the death of the Prophet. But in more recent times the political power of the Moslems has grown less, until now, of 175 million Moslems, 100 millions are under subjection to Christian Powers. The world is now Christian so far as government is concerned, for Japan is the only heathen nation which counts in world affairs. With this advance in the political power of the Christian nations, it is now possible for the first time to "go into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature." The modern crusaders have battered down the gates and are firmly established in every city in the world except Lhasa and Mecca, nor are the gates of these cities likely to remain closed long.

It is only recently that the crusaders have come to appreciate the significance of the Moslem menace. T many other minor relig disappear, but the Mosle on increasing in numbers few—have been conver tianity, partly because of t of the Mohammedan and Christian missionary effort expended in other than Mc Now every missionary keenly alive to the situatio is considering methods f this great problem.

With the impending st Christianity and Moham divided Christian army is together. Indeed, it was n work showed the weakn forces that the various Pr began to appreciate the working agreement betwe Minor differences, such as the branches of the Meth and Presbyterian church forgotten in mission work f Now we find all Protestant ing together in a way that of a century ago. It was of the exigencies of missior the leading denomination to send representatives to ference which will conside faith and order. The missi with the heathen could not handicaps under which he of the divided army which denominations are repres field, but all are not unit working in closer harmon but it has not been man Roman Catholic and Prote in neighboring villages in in bloody feuds. As the come into sharper conflicts lem enemy, they have been inclined to forget petty d ences which divided them a cent developments point to breaking down of what ha considered insurmountable tween denominations, and that the complete Christian world will accompany the ment of Christian unity.

SWIFT AND CHEAP JUSTICE

BY

GEORGE W. ALGER

I

ORGANIZING THE COURTS FOR BUSINESS

WHEN George the Third, as a young man, was learning the violin, it is said that he asked his conscientious instructor for an opinion on his playing. The old man replied: "Your Majesty, students of the violin may be divided into three classes: those who do not play at all, those who play very badly, and those who play very well. Your Majesty is now in the second class." The courts of the United States may be similarly classified into those which are not organized at all, those which are organized very badly, and a few which are organized very well. The main difficulty for the critic is in deciding whether most of them fall into the first or second class.

Current studies of American government in other departments have been most effective in result when they have begun with the analysis of organization. An unorganized or badly organized department of government no more can be expected to produce a maximum of results than can a business which has no head, no system of bookkeeping or accounts, no facts as to cost of materials or of the manufacturing process. American government, more especially the government of cities, has in the last decade been greatly improved by constructive legislation based upon studies of organization resulting in the application of correct principles of administration to the business of government.

Efforts are now being made to apply to the problem of efficient

justice, in part at least, the methods which have been successfully applied to efficient administration in other departments. Hence we have a growing interest in the machinery of the courts. The word here used does not mean procedure, practice, rules of law, or matters which, however much they may need reforming, are strictly law subjects. It means the system or lack of system by which the courts are organized for their work.

Any business man would say that for the effective operation of a going business on a large scale an adequate business organization is essential. Such an adequate organization includes at least an officer or group of officers having power to produce coördination of its various parts and a conscious general plan governing their actions; second, a system by which the work done in various branches is carefully checked up so that responsible supervising officers and directors may know what is done and not done and who is entitled to commendation or blame; third, a system by which the time and attention of expensive and important officers are devoted, not to details, but to the more serious work of their departments; fourth, a system by which, through specialization, certain officers may become expert in the performance of important work; fifth, a system by which the directors and officers placed in responsible authority are given power in proportion to their responsibility and are not, for example, handicapped by multitudinous by-laws of stockholders who meet annually; sixth, a clear, intelligent, and complete audit or report of proceedings made annually or oftener, that the stockholders may know how the stewardship of the officers and directors has been conducted.

Under such a business organization, if things go wrong the opportunity for intelligent criticism is great. It does not require guesswork. There are definite facts which may readily be put together in placing the blame. These facts may be used as a basis for correction and reform.

Speaking broadly, substantially all those desirable qualities are lacking in the organization of the courts. As an illustration of the lack of organization in the courts take, for example, the so-called Judiciary Law of New York, which is the law under which the principal courts of the state are supposed to be organized. It is, of course, the work of the legislature and not of the courts themselves, but it is under the so-called system which this Judiciary Law provides that the courts are required to act. This law occupies 200 pages of the Consolidated Laws of the State and consists of nearly 800 sections. The entirely justified first impression is that it is in greater part a mere

piece of patch-work devised very largely for the purpose of creating jobs for a miscellaneous class of clerks, assistant clerks, confidential special clerks, criers, messengers, interpreters, reporters, and stenographers, since all these officers are distinctly and separately provided for, even to the very counties in which they shall be located and in which they shall enjoy their salaries. There is far more space devoted to the clerks, stenographers, attendants, and messengers than to the officers whose positions, ordinarily considered, are more important: the lawyers and the judges. If the matters unessential to a judicial organization were stricken from this law, it could be contained in a fifth of its present bulk.

Without attempting to go into detail, let us consider the organization of the metropolitan Supreme Court of New York City. Here we have a court in which, in New York County (old New York City), twenty-seven Supreme Court justices conduct trials. This is the court in which all the important litigation, involving sums in excess of $2,000, and all equity cases are tried in the richest section of America, a court in which thousands of citizens attend every year as witnesses, litigants, and jurors. It is a court for which correct and adequate organization obviously is essential. Yet trial judges who conduct this court have no power to make rules for their own government. They have no presiding justice. Even the stenographers and court officers are appointed for them and their rules are laid down upon them by their associates who, by appointment, constitute the justices of another court essentially different in its character and business. Until the first of January, 1913, there was no method or plan by which the full individual record of any individual judge could be known, no plan by which any one could ascertain without long and laborious examination what any judge did in the course of a year, how many days he worked, how many cases he tried, or what happened to them when appeal was taken. There is no person having an oversight over the conduct of these judges, no one to observe their actual efficiency or to place them where their services will be most valuable. The Appellate Division of the Supreme Court is supposed, in theory, to organize and regulate this court. The whole organization and practical management of a court dealing with jurors, witnesses, and the trial of facts, in which countless thousands of people necessarily are in attendance annually under this theory, are to be dealt with by an overworked appeal court to whose business all these matters are entirely foreign. The trial judges of New York County, either singly or collectively, cannot remove even a stenographer from their own courts.

It seemed wise to the legislature to impose that power upon the Appellate Division. The immense amount of petty patronage which has been thrust upon the judiciary by this Judiciary Law is almost disgusting. It reeks of the petty job creator, but it is almost wholly devoid of intelligent organization for the judiciary itself. Yet under it the great County of New York must conduct its judicial business.

In 1912, the New York State Bar Association appointed a committee to inquire and report in the following year certain facts regarding the work of the Supreme Court, not only in New York County but throughout the state. These questions are simple and important to one seeking any definite knowledge of the actual workings of that court. Here, for example, are the questions:

First: What terms of court during the last five years have been appointed to be held by each justice of the Supreme Court?

Second: How many days during each year has each justice in fact held court?

Third: The number of contested cases tried by jury and the number of contested cases tried without a jury by each justice.

Fourth: The periods of time consumed in the trial of those criminal cases, the trials of which have occupied more than one week, and the general character of the case, the trial of which was so extended.

Fifth: The period of time which ordinarily elapses in each county after the case is at issue before it is brought to trial, distinguishing between cases tried with and those tried without a jury.

Sixth: The amount of appeal work done by each justice of the Supreme Court and the department of the court in which it was done.

Seventh: The percentage of reversals in the respective judicial departments.

These lawyers were unable to find answers to these questions. There was no official report or reports from which this information could be obtained. They tried to find out some matters by writing to every county clerk and every justice of the Supreme Court. The committee says that the information they had thus been able to get was so fragmentary and incomplete that any tabulation which might be prepared from the figures obtained would justly be the subject of criticism.

This is not a special reflection upon the lack of organization of justice in New York. It is equally true of other states. We do not know enough in detail about the work done in our courts to make a comparison between those of one state and those of another. There

is no branch of our public business receiving public money which makes so little accounting of its services as the judiciary.

In England the judicial statistics of the business of the English courts are most elaborate in their detail. Sometime we may realize that exact knowledge is as essential in passing judgment upon the courts as upon any other criticised institution, and exact knowledge as yet is conspicuously lacking.

This lack of exact knowledge is also a great cause for unjust criticism of the courts. For example, a few years ago a learned lawyer in the western part of New York set himself to collecting details as to the performance of judicial business in the New York Supreme Court. The work of obtaining facts was difficult for the reasons I have mentioned. Having obtained information from various sources, he pieced it together and on it made some decidedly severe criticisms of the justices in New York County before the State Bar Association. He gave some statistics of the judicial service of individual judges to substantiate his criticisms. Later, one of the justices who had fallen under this criticism made an equally caustic reply. He had likewise gathered statistics, from sources the lawyer had overlooked, which showed conclusively that the lawyer's criticism had been entirely unwarranted and unjust. The whole trouble was due to a lack of adequate available facts. The lawyer's error was an honest one.

Outside New York City, the chaotic condition of the Supreme Court is even more apparent. What, in detail, the Supreme Court judges do in the country districts, what cases they try, what time they spend on their judicial duties, what their personal effectiveness as judicial officers may be, are almost entirely matters of conjecture. That which is true of the Supreme Court likewise is true of the County Courts. County government in New York is very much in need of reorganization, and the County Courts on their judicial and administrative sides are parts of an exceedingly bad system.

There are many phases of English law which are entirely foreign to us and will, for our good, forever remain so, but as an administrative system the English courts are far ahead of us. The Lord Chancellor is the head of the judicial organization, and has the power of appointment of judges in the Chancery Division, in the King's Bench Division, and in the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division. The departments or divisions which are created by English law in turn have their responsible administrative heads. The Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division is presided over by a president. The Chief Justice is the head of the King's Bench Division; the Lord Chancellor himself is

the head of the Chancery Division. The English system is highly centralized, perhaps to the extreme. The Lord High Chancellor is both a judicial and an administrative officer, and every judge, clerk, bailiff, and employee in the entire judicial system is under his supervision. If some defect is found in the plan or system of English justice, there is a responsible official to whom a person can go with a complaint or criticism with the expectation of a hearing and a result if the criticism is good.

I have spoken of the New York Supreme Court. Consider the courts of another great metropolitan city and you will find the same result. Chicago is, if possible, worse than New York in the organization of its higher courts. It has no vestige of rational grouping of its judges in the circuit or the superior courts. Because they have no head the judges draw lots to see who shall hear chancery cases. There is no possibility of specialization. They do their work in the criminal court for a year at a time in rotation. Every one of these courts, to be sure, has a so-called Chief Justice, who has no more authority apparently than that of keeping decorum and putting motions at meetings of the judges.

It would be possible to go through the courts in the other great cities of America and reach the same general conclusion — that they are planless, headless congeries of individual judges of like power, each operating a court subject to no direct responsibility except his own conscience, with no supervision over his work or its results and no method of knowing the results. If a number of lawyers should attempt to do, for example, in Illinois, California, Pennsylvania, or to a less extent in Massachusetts, what the committee of the New York State Bar Association attempted to do in New York, there is little question that their report would be the same, a total inability to get the accurate information necessary for a comprehensive study of the results of the courts, or as a basis of comparison with the courts of other states, or as a means of determining the efficiency of any judge whose reëlection was to be under consideration shortly by the people.

The legislatures have patched together more or less intricate masses of regulations which confuse and embarrass the courts themselves and which have no central idea and which leave the more important courts in a condition of chaos. These conditions are at the basis of a greater part of the lack of effectiveness of our courts. While the judges and the lawyers are considering reforms of procedure which to a large extent are technical matters requiring legal learning and in reference to which lay opinion or criticism is of not much con-

structive value, a larger public can join with them in urging the administrative organization of the courts themselves. This is being done. It would be unfair to leave the reference to the New York Supreme Court without adding that the Supreme Court judges themselves in New York City recently, through a committee of their own number and without legislative interference, have adopted a unified system which has been in force since the first of January of this year for reporting in detail, not a part, but all the business done in that court. It will soon be possible under this system to know completely and definitely the detailed workings of that court and, when those details are fully brought out, these reports will afford a valuable basis for the reorganization of the court itself on efficiency principles.

The most conspicuously well-organized court in the United States, affording a model which is being copied in other states, is a court which only a few years ago was a conspicuously bad one: the Municipal Court of Chicago. With the possible exception of Philadelphia, the lower courts of Chicago ten years ago were perhaps the worst of their kind existing in any large city in the United States. There were fifty-eight justices of the peace scattered about the city, with no central organization plan or system whatever. Many of the judges were men of low character; and the court was the subject of considerable scandal and was doing its work badly, expensively, and often dishonestly. To reform that court, the Chicago Municipal Court was organized. It was organized on a plan. It is the only court in Illinois, so far as my information goes, which has a plan.

This court began as the result of the effort of Chicago to get a new charter from the state legislature so that it could govern itself. Chicago failed to get a charter. One provision of its proposed charter passed, however, and that provision enabled it to organize its lower courts, civil and criminal, into a new court. The organizers of this court's system were business men and lawyers. The business men felt that business methods should be adopted and they applied what is essentially the corporation idea to its organization. They made the judges directors for the administration of justice, with monthly meetings to consider the business of the court, as corporation directors hold monthly meetings for similar purposes. They made one of the judges, called the Chief Justice, the chief executive officer. They gave to him large powers so as to make him responsible to a very considerable extent for the success or failure of the court. To this executive officer, or Chief Justice, was given power to assign judges to the calendars. They gave him the right and opportunity to assign judges

to various classes of work. He has sole control over the calendars. He is required to audit the court's business. These business men thought the judges should know what their clerks and bailiffs were doing, so they required that there should be an auditor working under the direction of the Chief Justice and making a monthly and yearly audit of the court's business.

Instead of relying upon the legislature to make changes in practice and procedure, they authorized the judges to make their own rules. If any lawyer finds some defect in its administration which can be removed, or if he has a suggestion to make for the improvement of the court, he can make it to the Chief Justice and, if it is good, it can be speedily adopted. In New York he can make his suggestion to the legislature and ask to have three thousand sections of the code increased by a new section or by the change of an old one. At this last session of the New York legislature, for example, there were 113 such amendments proposed in that state—a long, tedious, cumbersome, disheartening, and obviously futile method.

The Chicago Municipal Court has complete control, through its judges, over its own officers and clerks. Its complete work appears in an efficiency audit which is kept by the court, as well as a financial audit. Judicial statistics are kept of all its operations. There is one additional power which the court possesses which deserves note, the germ of a significant idea: the power of disciplining its own members. This power does not include the power of removal from the Bench, but a judge whose work is conspicuously bad at least can be relegated to a post where he will be less injurious to the interests of justice. The effect which such a power of discipline should have upon the sense of personal responsibility of every member of the judicial staff needs no comment. This court has been fortunate in having, since its organization, in its Chief Justice, Mr. Harry Olson, an extraordinarily efficient administrative head. It has been enormously successful in the amount of business which it is able to handle, with the result that to-day it does more work, renders more judgments in cash value than all the other higher courts of the city combined, and is an object of pride to the city of Chicago.

What we are dealing with here is simply the question of a judicial plan, and the Chicago court is referred to as a conspicuous example of a court organized on a plan which has succeeded in satisfying to a large degree the demands of the people. It is the modern conception of what a court should be as a coördinated organization.

A few years ago, another conspicuously bad court was the Police

Magistrates' Court in New York. It was a formless, planless jumble of judges, the frequent object of newspaper scandal and public complaint. A commission was appointed by the legislature to reorganize the inferior criminal courts of the city. In 1910, the legislation which these commissioners recommended was adopted. Their plan furnished an actual organization for these courts. Instead of a series of judges of equal jurisdiction, responsible to no central authority, every one doing about what he pleased, there is a centralized, systematized criminal court, which has the respect of the community which it serves. The city is divided into two divisions, old New York City being one division, and Brooklyn and the adjacent outlying boroughs the other. There are two Chief Magistrates, one for each division. The Chief Magistrate has the general supervision of the magistrates' courts in his division. He determines the number of Magistrates' Courts which shall be held, prescribes the hour for the attendance of the city magistrates, clerks, and employees. It is his duty to establish and supervise a system for keeping the records of every court. He appoints a chief clerk, and subordinate clerks are appointed by the Board of Magistrates. A meeting of the magistrates is held every month, at which as a board they investigate all complaints presented to it pertaining to the courts or to the magistrates, officers, or employees. The magistrates sitting as a board make rules of practice and procedure.

No citizen of New York can examine the annual report of this court, made by the Board of City Magistrates, with its great mass of accurate statistical material showing in detail the business of a court which is the barometer of crime in New York, without a just feeling of pride in the result which was obtained from the reorganization of 1910. Its plan of organization was based upon that of the Chicago Municipal Court. Certain phases of the inferior criminal court law of New York are, however, new. For example, the Domestic Relations Court is one of the best pieces of judicial machinery for the purpose which has yet been created. By reciprocity, Chicago has adopted from New York the substance of the law creating this court.

The organization of the criminal courts in New York is, however, still incomplete. As in Chicago's, they are highly organized at the bottom and badly organized at the top. The statistics of crime, for example, are incomplete. Chief Justice McAdoo, in his latest annual report, recommends a central statistical bureau which shall include not only the cases which originate in the Magistrates' Court, but those which originate before the Grand Jury and are tried in the higher

criminal courts, the returns from the higher criminal courts being very scant and unsatisfactory.

No form of organization is ever final. Every great corporation has to change its methods and its plans from time to time, both to correct defects and to meet changed conditions. The defect of court organizations as they exist at present is largely in the enormous difficulty with which simple changes are made, discouraging those who would be glad to help and whose ideas, if adopted, might prove valuable.

The writer often has had impressed upon him the value of an administrative head to the Police Magistrates' Court from this standpoint by personal experience as a director of two associations whose work comes in contact with the Police Magistrates' Court constantly. Questions come up at directors' meetings from time to time on matters dealing with the operation of the Magistrates' Court. The end of the discussion almost invariably is this: "The Secretary is instructed to see Judge McAdoo and tell him the situation and ask if something cannot be done to correct it."

The results have invariably been satisfactory in the extreme. Such results are due primarily to the simple fact that this Magistrates' Court has a central organization with a head, whose business it is to attend to just such matters. That this is highly important to a layman will require no argument. Contrast with it the headlessness of the Supreme Court and see how the lack of central authority produces dissatisfaction.

Some months ago, for example, a perspiring lawyer, who had a case immediately below mine on one of the trial calendars of the Supreme Court, complained to me bitterly of the stupid way in which one of the Supreme Court judges was handling his calendar. This lawyer had been in court on forty consecutive days answering "ready" in a case which for at least thirty-five of those days had absolutely no chance of getting to trial. There was no reason whatever for his case being on the calendar and called daily. A little common sense on the part of the judge would have shortened his calendar throughout this period to five cases at most. There was no danger whatever that the court would remain idle if five cases were marked ready and called on his calendar. Yet he had twenty cases on the calendar and continued to have twenty cases on the calendar daily, wasting the time of thirty lawyers for all that period. There was nothing which this lawyer could do or which I myself and others similarly situated could do, however, but waste our time or the time of our offices in sending some one to court every day to attend calen-

dar call and go through the foolish form of answering "Ready," spending half an hour on the process, and then have the case marked "Passed for the day." We all of us grumbled. We were dissatisfied and justly so, but there was nothing which could be done about it. It is unnecessary to say that it would have been inadvisable for this lawyer to have told the judge that he did not know how to handle his own calendar and was wasting time unnecessarily. If there had been a head to that court, however, to which we could have gone with our complaint, a remedy would have been afforded in twenty-four hours by an efficient chief justice.

The notion that a court can get along without a head is as intelligent as the notion that a business can get along without a head, yet the headlessness of the New York Supreme Court is as nothing compared with the headlessness, for example, of the Courts of Common Pleas in Philadelphia, which are split up into five air-tight compartments, each an absolutely distinct court, so distinct that if Court of Common Pleas No. 1, for some reason, has no case for trial and Court of Common Pleas No. 2, identical in character and jurisdiction, has twenty cases clamoring for trial, there can be no transfer from one court to the other.

The proposition that a court to attain efficiency requires an organization is not a new one in law reform. It has not received the public attention which it deserves, however, because its adoption involves greater practical difficulties and concentration of effort, and so will necessarily take more time than other reforms now under discussion. The result is that other less vital matters have been more currently discussed in the several states than this fundamental reform, which is essential to them all. Take Philadelphia, for example. It needs a municipal court of the type of the Chicago court. The present condition of justice, especially to the poor, in that city is by common consent a scandal of long standing. Mr. Samuel Scoville, Jr., a member of the Philadelphia Bar and general solicitor for the Legal Aid Society of Philadelphia, described the condition of Philadelphia courts before the City Club of Philadelphia last November. The condition, as he pictures it, is intolerable in any civilized community. For delay and for expense there is perhaps nothing like it in any other large American city. He says:

> Take the typical case of a small wage-earner who was defrauded out of his wages, amounting perhaps to ten or twelve dollars. His claim is small in terms of money, but it bulks large in terms of work and sweat and need. If there is one class who must have speedy justice it is the small wage-earner,

whose wages are the very blood of his life. Now what kind of justice does he get in this state? First, he has to go down to a magistrate and pay about $5 costs to start a suit. In a week or so he gets a trial and automatically the magistrate enters judgment for him. Then he waits twenty days and is told that the defendant has entered an appeal and that the whole case must be tried over again in the Court of Common Pleas. Accordingly, he hires a lawyer for ten dollars who draws up a statement of claim and rules the defendant to file an affidavit of defence in fifteen days. When that is done, his lawyer then rules the defendant to plead, which takes fifteen days more. After that, the case is at last ready for the trial list. The creditor has spent fifteen dollars and waited fifty days before his suit is even begun. His troubles, however, have just commenced. After the case is on the trial list he must wait for about two years before the case is even reached for trial.

I have had cases appear on the list six times before they were reached, and they were finally tried five years after suit was begun.

Such conditions as these have aroused the attention of the Law Association of Philadelphia, which last December presented a report on the general condition of the judicial system of Philadelphia County. The report shows an extraordinary condition of congestion and delay, due to an inadequate number of judges attempting to operate an archaic system. The committee praises the Chicago Municipal Court, but, as it states, an amendment to the state constitution would be needed before such a court could be organized in Philadelphia. Assuming all due speed, it says that the time required for the necessary amendment and subsequent legislation would make impossible the creation of such a court in any event earlier than 1917. The committee, therefore, recommends temporary relief of a less satisfactory character, meeting pressing needs and nothing else.

This report illustrates the reason that reform in judicial organization comes slowly where there is no effective public opinion demanding such reform. This committee of lawyers recommends a patching of the old system by the addition of a few changes to help get rid of the congested calendar. Why does it not recommend a well-organized municipal court to help the conditions which Mr. Scoville has described? The reasoning is interesting. The committee in its report says:

> In Cook County, in which Chicago is located, there are, in addition to the Municipal Court of thirty-one judges, a Circuit Court of fourteen judges and a Superior Court of twelve judges. The jurisdiction of the latter two courts is largely the same as that of the Municipal Court *and there is a marked tendency toward the absorption by that court of the business of the other courts.*

It adds a little later:

> A judicial system should embrace only one court of original jurisdiction. To split up original jurisdiction among several independent courts, each

having exclusive jurisdiction of a portion of the litigation, is unscientific. The example of the English and Federal systems admonishes us that a number of independent courts of exclusive and original jurisdiction will in time yield to the demand for unification and consolidation. On the other hand, to create several courts of concurrent jurisdiction will result only in a competition for business *in which the most efficient tribunal will attract all the litigants and lead to consolidation in order that the methods and procedure of the most successful court may be extended to all. For this reason the committee is of the opinion that the municipal court is but a temporary device to ameliorate existing conditions.* If the older courts will not yield to the reasonable demand of litigants to modernize their practice, procedure, and methods, the creation of a municipal court may become necessary in order to compel the ultimate modernization of all the courts.

A little leaven will leaven the whole lump, and thereby make the leaven itself unnecessary *after it has done its work.* Therefore, says the committee, we do not recommend its use! It declares:

Competent observers believe that it is but a matter of time when, in Chicago, there will be a revision of the judicial system and a consolidation of all the civil trial courts, so that the successful methods of the new municipal courts may be applied to all civil litigation.

From the possibility of any such revision, Philadelphia will be spared if the judgment of these jurists is accepted by the people. The danger of leaven in the judicial lump fortunately is not appreciated in other cities. The influence of the organization principle of the Chicago Municipal Court is reflected in the inferior criminal courts of New York City, in the Municipal Courts of Cleveland, Buffalo, and Milwaukee. It is the basis on which the Bar Association of St. Louis has asked for a Municipal Court for that city, and of a movement for a similar court in Kansas City. As I write, a commission appointed by the New York legislature is at work reorganizing the Municipal Court of New York City.

If the adoption of coördinated business systems for the lower civil and criminal courts of our cities produces the results which are confidently expected of them [and feared in Philadelphia] as experiment stations for cheap and speedy justice, their effect upon the higher courts will be irresistible. The success of these centralized, highly organized courts is bringing by contrast public attention to the unorganized condition of courts of higher degree. The opportunity for reform in organization is indeed great. The higher courts of practically all our states are more products of history than of constructive principles. They are growths and most of them have never been thoroughly reorganized since the passing of primitive conditions. The laws governing them are accumulations due to legislative tinkering

and the united zeal of the place hunter and the legislative job creator. We have not yet fairly begun this process of reform in organization. As has been said, this is a very difficult kind of reform. In most states its accomplishment involves constitutional amendments, and the adoption of constitutional amendments necessarily and properly requires time. A committee of the American Bar Association, appointed to suggest remedies and formulate proposed laws to prevent delays and unnecessary cost in litigation, made a report to the Association in 1909 which embodies the ideal to which this movement for judicial reorganization should tend. The committee submitted the unification of the judicial system as a first principle which should control in judicial organization. It says:

> The whole judicial power of each state, at least for civil causes, should be vested in one great court, of which all tribunals should be branches, departments, or divisions. The business as well as the administration of this court should be thoroughly organized so as to prevent any mere waste of judicial power and of needless clerical work, duplication of papers and records and the like, thus obviating expense to litigants and cost to the public.

This report follows the reasoning of Professor Roscoe Pound, in a memorable address given before the American Bar Association in 1906, in which he declared that our system of courts is archaic in three respects: In its multiplicity of courts; in preserving concurrent jurisdiction; and in the waste of judicial power which it involves.

This subject of judicial organization is one in which the assistance of business men is of demonstrated value. It was the Commercial Association of Chicago which led in the organization of its Municipal Court. It was largely through the urgency of business men in other cities that the municipal court idea has been adopted elsewhere. If business men in large numbers could be made to appreciate the extent to which their services could be of value in this particular branch of reform, its progress would be facilitated greatly. To a large extent, of course, the main questions of law reform are of a technical character which requires the expert work of judges and lawyers. The question of the form of organization, the business system of justice, however, is one in which the judgment of business men can well be utilized.

The doing of justice is not business, but the organization of the machinery by which justice can be done efficiently is business. No higher service can be done by men skilled in organization than this work of, first, creating the necessary public demands for the business organization of the courts, and second, when that demand has taken concrete form and the way has been cleared, of establishing the courts upon a plan which is ordered, intelligent, and adequate.

WHAT I AM TRYING TO DO

GIVE TWO MILLION CHILDREN A CHANCE IN VOCATIONAL CONTINUATION SCHOOLS — THE BUSINESS MAN'S SOLUTION OF THE SCHOOL PROBLEM — TO ORGANIZE EDUCATION SO THAT GOOD VOCATIONAL TEACHING COSTS ONLY $10 A YEAR PER CHILD

BY

H. E. MILES

IDENT OF THE WISCONSIN STATE BOARD OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS)

AM one of many who are trying to make it possible for every boy or girl who leaves school at fourteen to continue his or her education while working.

/e are trying to make our public ›ol methods practical and useful, by viding vocational education for every d who needs it, at public expense.

:, to do this, it is necessary to upset ting educational conditions, then we / fairly be said to be trying to ganize public education in the ted States.

here are two million children, between ages of fourteen and sixteen, out of ›ol in this country. Recent investiions indicate that not more than half hese are at work at any one time, or e forced to leave school through ıomic pressure. The other half are . Practically all left school because the ›ols did not hold their interest. School become distasteful to them and their ents had tired of insisting on their ndance.

lost of these children have left school ›r before the end of the sixth grade, ıalf of the pupils in the public schools and as all do who enter our industries. the vast majority of these children has been the least of their schooling. decades we have been turning loose y year an increasing number of boys girls at the critical period of life, the inning of adolescence, when their eloping character needs guidance the t. And we have given them little or ıing in school that is of real service to n in facing the problems of life.

Last year the state of Wisconsin gave free vocational education five hours a week or more to 17,000 persons, mostly boys and girls. This year it will do the same for 25,000 pupils, and next year for 40,000. These are children who are at work, and their employers are paying them for the time spent in school. The Wisconsin law requires every child between fourteen and sixteen, whether employed or not, to attend these schools unless he has already completed the elementary school course.

Our special continuation vocational schools have solved, in a simple yet highly efficient and practical manner, the biggest educational problem confronting the people of the United States. The schools can be opened everywhere with the minimum of delay and conducted with the minimum of expense. Several other states have already begun to establish them, and many more will follow.

Let no one imagine for a moment that vocational education is a matter of dollar-getting only. The worker must be made super-excellent, if may be, in his trade, but as character is infinitely more important than dollar-getting, the worker is taught, as of infinite importance, "citizenship," his relation to society, to the government of city, state, and nation, his rights and how to get them, his obligations and how to observe them.

None of these things is taught by the end of the sixth grade, when half our children leave school. Little of them is taught even in our high schools, into which only one in five of our children goes, and from which only one in thirty graduates.

It is customary, in these days of centralized control, to take it for granted that everything worth while is highly organized. But when we examine the public school systems of the various states, we find that, for the most part, there is only local control and direction of the schools of the entire Nation. Only four or five states have boards of education with any real directing influence in educational affairs. In at least forty states public education is not a system but an incapable, semi-ignorant, headless jumble. The girls of sixteen who begin as teachers at $35 a month (we are reported to have five thousand such juvenile recruits for the teaching profession every year in Wisconsin alone) have more to do with making or unmaking our public school system than all the state boards and state superintendents. And to this aggregation of inadequately trained and unguided educators, the people of the United States give $500,000,000 a year under the delusion that they are thus providing for the education of their youth. To these educational shambles we are entrusting a billion-dollar investment in plants and the present and future welfare of 18,000,000 young Americans. We are handing over to this headless system the future of a Nation. And if you want proof that this system is a failure, consider that half of all who enter it leave as failures by the end of the sixth grade.

In short, the common schools are not giving the children what the children want and need. The business men of Wisconsin awoke some time ago to the fact that the common schools were at least fifty per cent. failures. After years of protest the business men, jointly with the very exceptional educational leaders and legislators, have found the remedy and are enthusiastic in their activity in helping to apply it. This work has given these business men an opportunity to prove their citizenship, to discharge in part their social obligations, by helping the state to provide education in a form that is of genuine benefit to those who receive it.

We did not jump blindly into a new experiment in education in Wisconsin. A commission of experts by the legislature to inve report a plan. This co sisted of the state sup education, the director of Extension Division, the College of Agriculture, the of schools of our largest cit the director of the legisla library, and the president university. This commissi McCarthy, the legislative r rian, to Europe, and he sp part of a year investigating of industrial education in nor

On his reports and those mittee, which was at the vestigating local conditions bills were drawn up, not o for vocational education, b possible to carry out the upon. Bills were also amending the truancy laws, sory education laws, the a laws, and other laws, all concerning the relation o labor and to school. Then, bills were submitted to th they were taken up with the of employers and the labor so that both might fully what was planned and how were to be controlled. A lature passed the bills sul the form in which the comm mended them.

Under these laws night were created for adults, commercial schools, and vocational continuation da boys and girls employed a supplementing existing sc no way encroaching upon fering with them. The these new schools is in t governing board of nine, the state superintendent the head of the Univer Division, and the d Engineering, repre cationalism; three o and three represe facturing and comm we created local

ation, making it compulsory upon
/ city of five thousand inhabitants,
permissible in smaller communities,
ave a local board composed of the
rintendent of schools, two employers
bor, and two working men. In this
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ard qualified to look at the problem
dustrial education from every possible
t of view. Not only has the plan
ed out admirably so far as the edu-
nal phase is concerned, but it has
found that this commingling of the
ests of employer and employee, and
bringing of both into direct relation
the public as represented in the
n of the public servant, the superin-
ent of schools, is really amounting to a
union of social forces, which is acting
social leaven, from which a better
ıal understanding and a closer co-
ation of interests in other directions
ising.

e provided for the opening of thirty
ols with a maximum state appro-
ion of $3,000 apiece (this sum not
ceed half of the local expenditure),
requiring the local boards to open
inuation schools wherever as many
venty children between fourteen and
en were found out of school, whether
ork or not.

ith the continuation schools opened
very industrial community, there will
o idle children learning the vices of
streets. Every local community is
ired to pay half the expense of the
inuation schools within its bound-
, and, except in Milwaukee, the $3,000
appropriation meets half the ex-
e of every school. For the current
ol year the state has appropriated
,000 and there will be forty-five
inuation schools in operation, with at
twenty-five thousand in attendance.
children are required to attend a
mum of five hours a week and, in
ly every case, their employers give
this time without deducting any-
g from their wages.

ıe of the first things we discovered
that the children who had gone to
at the age of fourteen were to all
ıts and purposes uneducated. They had been taught a little reading, writing, and arithmetic and possibly a little geography, most of which they proceeded at once to forget. We had many surprising revelations of the failure of common school education in the lower grades. Handsome, intelligent, supposedly educated mechanics of from nineteen to twenty-five years of age who had dropped out at the end of the sixth grade are coming into the industrial schools, and some of them have to begin their English studies with reading the primer. Scarcely any of them can do simple fractions and many of them have to go back to addition and multiplication. Their hunger for vocational education overcomes their embarrassment at their lack of knowledge. These are American-born young men and women. The city superintendent in one place where our vocational schools have been established is authority for the statement that it is clear that these children either never were taught spelling, reading, and arithmetic or they have wholly forgotten them, and he adds that they are taking hold of their new work with the utmost interest and avidity.

The courses in our Wisconsin continuation schools include instruction in English, in elementary personal and social hygiene, and in citizenship, but the main stress is laid on the relation of the school work to the work the child is actually doing in the shop or store. Every child is given instruction in the theory and practice of the industry or occupation in which he is engaged, if it is a progressive and developing industry. Mechanical drawing, "the language of the shop," is taught, with shop mathematics. Children who could not do simple calculations when they had only abstract numbers to deal with show surprising aptitude in working out problems directly related to the work of their hands. The courses include such handwork as carpentry, pattern-making, printing, moulding, machine-shop work, etc., for the boys, and dressmaking, millinery, domestic science, and chemistry for the girls. Besides these in every city are taught the occupations most followed in its factories.

The establishment of the first of these

schools, less than two years ago, demonstrated that it takes only from four to twelve weeks to start an industrial school for children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen in any progressive industrial community. Such a school, built up in such a space of time, will be substantially as perfect and complete as can be desired under existing conditions. In 1912 we started an industrial school at Racine on forty-eight hours' notice and in September of that year similar schools were started at twenty-five other places in Wisconsin. These schools were operated at a yearly cost per pupil of less than half that of the common schools, the expense varying in proportion to the size of the community and the number of pupils, from seven dollars to fifteen dollars a year for every pupil. The average for the entire state for the year was ten dollars per pupil.

Where did we get the teachers? Why, we got them from the place where the very best industrial teachers are always to be found plentifully — we got them from the shops. In any community having modern industrial establishments there is no trouble in getting teachers who are not only competent but enthusiastic and up-to-date. And these teachers do more than teach — they exert a very beneficial reflex influence on the teachers of the public school.

The wood-working class in the continuation school at Sheboygan furnishes an excellent illustration of what I mean when I say there are plenty of good teachers available. The teacher of this class is a middle-aged German. He served his apprenticeship in Germany and worked there as a journeyman before coming to America. That means that he had learned his trade thoroughly, as Germans learn trades. He worked in America as a journeyman. Then he became a foreman. Later he became an employer and owner of a small furniture factory. He is teaching these children his craft as thoroughly as he learned it himself, with infinite patience and kindness, and they are responding with tremendous enthusiasm. At the end of the first six weeks there were three hundred and fifty children in the Sheboygan school, one hundred more on the waiting-list, and fifty others ready for the law should be fully e

Though five hours a mum time required by l in the day continuati do not ask the children t night after working all d limit to the time a pupil the time the employer i him from his work. N wages paid brings larger paid for school time. Ma pupils in Wisconsin cont last year spent a whol every week. In Fond d mestic servants attended to twenty hours every w employed by their father, fifteen hours a week in sc a boy of sixteen who h two days in two years w attend five hours a wee days he asked the teacher more than five hours?" time in the continuatio

that, until he succeede good job, and he is now hours a week while worl

The work of the cont is not confined to those e facturing industries. We a training place for th commercial pursuits as particular attention will salesmanship. This will the practical application the survey which Dr. dean of the Extension University of Wisconsin, of the business of retaili ship. The wages of reta a class, are very low. Th out the country. It i true that salespeople as a in efficiency. The diffe good salesman and a great. Experience indic a store gets a much low portion to wages paid, dollar-a-week salesgirl saleswoman who gets week or more. Here, else, cheap help is costli

help is cheapest. And the ineffi-
:y of salespeople can usually be traced
:tly to lack of knowledge of their work
its purposes, to lack of ambition,
:nergy, and sometimes to physical
:ness. Two years ago the Exten-
Division of the University of Wis-
in began to educate retailers in the
uct of their business and salesmen
he art of selling. The continuation
ols of Wisconsin are enlarging upon
work. Classes have already been
olished in several cities. They are
popular. They have increased rapid-
id steadily in attendance and enthu-
n and in support given by all con-
ed. There are courses for beginners,
ses for salespeople who have been
usiness for a longer time, and still
rent courses for store managers. The
:ase in the efficiency of those in
idance is apparent.

takes but a little consideration to
ze the importance of this particular
ch of vocational education. We are
stomed to think of vocational train-
as something essentially related to
ufacturing, but, as a matter of fact,
ufacturing is the fourth in order of
ortance among American industries.
sekeeping comes first, with more people
ged in it than in any other one oc-
ition. Farming employs more per-
than any other occupation except
ekeeping. Then, third, comes retail
manship. In our Wisconsin vocation-
:hools we are teaching the five-dollar
how to earn eight dollars and more.
ome respects, the girl question is even
e important than the boy question.
girl in industry is a newer phenomenon
the boy worker, and this phase of the
lem has been less completely brought

There is no indication that the
tion of woman in industry will become
less important in the future. There
many indications that it will be still
e important than it has been. And
as unjust to the woman wage-earner
ithhold the special training and edu-
on that would enable her to do her
intelligently, interestedly, and profit-
to herself and her employer, as
to withhold it from the boy or man.

The underlying principle on which the whole scheme of industrial education is based, the justification for what we are trying to do, is that it is distinctly unjust to withhold from any member of society the opportunity to learn the things that will enable that man or woman or boy or girl to do his or her share of the world's work efficiently and joyously. Vocational training is neither a boon nor a privilege — it is the birthright of every American child. And, this being true, it follows that it is an essential obligation of the State to provide it — an obligation which the State cannot evade to-day without paying a serious penalty a generation hence.

Our Wisconsin schools aim to give to every person of every age in the state the special training that he or she needs. Gray-haired men and women are attending the evening industrial schools. The man I most trust as a building contractor in my home town came from the day-labor class. He can direct his workmen and build splendidly, but he does not know how to calculate costs and make up bills of materials well enough to be safe. He often works an entire summer at a loss, because he does not know well enough how to figure. This man needs just such night schools as we are providing for adults in our new Wisconsin system. We are providing these so that every citizen can be strengthened in his weak places, and so in the long run help make the Nation great and happy.

After a generation of continuation schools for children, however, there will be no need of night schools for the adults, except for the higher processes. So it is these schools for the boys and girls from fourteen to sixteen that we are concentrating on, to give them what the common schools have failed to provide. Eventually the whole public school system must be reshaped so as to give every child its just due. This is a task calling for the widest possible coöperation between all the interests involved.

The main trouble with our common schools is that they are designed essentially for the abstract-minded children — those who learn readily from the printed page. These are the children who have inherited

a certain kind of mental capacity, or who have from infancy been surrounded by books. But they constitute certainly not more than half of all the children that attend the public schools. I should judge the proportion to be considerably less than 50 per cent. And the public schools, as at present constituted, make no provision whatever for the other half, the concrete-minded child, who can, only with extreme difficulty and then imperfectly, learn from the printed page. I call these "hand-minded" children. There is not or should not be any stigma in the fact that a child is unable to learn except through the same course by which the infinite majority of people in all ages have learned — through contact with and control of the forces and materials of Nature and the relation of their daily occupations to the world of real things. Yet the schools have acted as though the child might as well be an idiot as concrete-minded. They have turned this 50 per cent. away at fourteen and younger, and have focussed all their attention on the children who were able to master the abstractions of present-day teaching methods. I wish I could take every one who reads this on a visit to any one of our industrial continuation schools. I would point to boys who failed hopelessly in the common schools growing mentally from day to day, with increasing joy in their work. You would observe them acquiring such distinctly cultural accomplishments as habits of industry, observation, and honesty, the power of concentration on the task in hand, the perception and application of accuracy in every human undertaking and contact, the appreciation of ordered processes, whether in their own vocations or in the affairs of life generally. You would see them developing the spirit of fellowship in service, and understanding the relation of cause to effect.

It is these things that make what we are trying to do worth while, and I believe that the way in which we have worked out the problem of industrial education in Wisconsin is the only way in which the problem can successfully be worked out. We have been talking about trade schools since 188 talked and fought and strugg thirty years, and in 1910 we had t trade schools in a population of 90,0 people, with about 1,500 pupils i thirteen schools, and were teachi the most, only four trades. W not reaching the millions of c who become our mechanics and w people, who perform the ordinary tions of life. Then Wisconsin the door of opportunity to all child

There has been a trade school i waukee for a number of years whic $300 a year per child and is onl full. But now the state of Wi takes every child working at any and puts him in school — at a $10 a year per child. We do no to spend any public money for ex buildings and equipment. The ment, so far as the practical shop t goes, is in the shops and factori stores from which the children come continuation schools. The school are there, and it is easy to arran hours for the continuation schools the same buildings answer for the for the ordinary public schools. necticut has been spending $50, year on two trade schools in Brid and New Britain at a cost to th of $200 a student per year, and h only 250 children of the 40,000 o in the state who need industrial tion. Now the legislature is co ing bills for the establishment o tinuation schools throughout the on the Wisconsin plan. New Yor established a trade high-school, senting an investment of $1,500,0 an operating expense of $200,000 a with a total cost of $100 per pupi reaches only 2,500 children. And of these goes into the trades th taught there. In the continuation s of Wisconsin we now have ten as many pupils as in all the trade s of the United States. What w doing is to give the boy or girl a cha work at the occupation he or she the best, and then give him or her a special education that is available will enable the pupil to excel at the c

occupation. Success in work is what makes one happy in his work. The boy who is a good ball-player always wants to play ball, but the boy who cannot play ball, but is expert at marbles, wants to play marbles. If our working boys and girls are not happy in their employment, it is largely the fault of the State and only partly the fault of the boys. In Wisconsin, if there is any child in employment from fourteen to sixteen years of age, he must go to the industrial or continuation school for half a day a week, where we are teaching every trade openly. Any boy or girl in the state of Wisconsin can take up any occupation he or she chooses and has the capacity for. We will not take a child predisposed to consumption and teach him a trade that would only hurry him along in that direction, but, according to his aptitudes, he can learn any trade he will, and we do not take him away from his employment when we teach him. We do not ask him to go to a high-school to learn how to run a lathe, but we put him into the best factory in the town, and while he is in that factory we give him the skill that the trade high-school could not give him half so well. The majority of poor working parents cannot keep their children in pretty clothes, away from work and income for the added years it takes to go through the trade high-schools. We will continue to keep education away from half our children as heretofore unless we give it to them as they can and will take it — in the continuation schools.

The continuation schools, moreover, keep children out of the cursory, "blind-alley" occupations. About 85 per cent. of children, unguided, go into "blind alley" jobs immediately upon leaving schools — jobs that lead them nowhere. There are more of these jobs than people think. Besides such work as running errands, selling newspapers, and the like, there are in the shoe-manufacturing and textile industries, among others, many jobs which are given to children between fourteen and seventeen and which never pay more than children's wages. A few children go from these places into better ones in the industries, but most of them drift into the hopeless and submerged classes.

We are saving the boy and girl from the "blind alley" job through compulsory attendance at our continuation schools. Ohio is beginning to do the same, with a law requiring employers to send their juvenile employees to continuation schools as fast as they are established. Indiana has passed a law similar to the Wisconsin law, although the efforts of the professional teachers to keep everyone else off the board have resulted in only three representatives of business and labor out of a total of eleven. Pennsylvania recently passed a law giving state aid, not to exceed $5,000 in any one case, to pay half the expenses of every continuation vocational school established. New Jersey has adopted a similar system. Massachusetts is giving state aid to local vocational schools and has empowered local authorities to compel attendance on them. And in Cincinnati, Cleveland, Gary, Menominee, New York, Boston, Newark, Chicago, and Los Angeles "pre-vocational" training is being introduced in the higher grades of the elementary schools, to enable the child to make an intelligent choice of occupations. Los Angeles, not being an industrial community, has neither opportunity nor need for industrial continuation schools, but is establishing an intermediate high school with excellent industrial courses for those "concrete-minded" children to whom the curriculum of the ordinary high-school offers nothing but mental torture.

What we are trying to do is to develop the human capital of the United States, worth many times more than all our other resources. We are trying to stop the 50 per cent. waste of our present educational system. We are trying to remove from America the stigma that there is thirty-eight times as much illiteracy among our native white people as in northern Europe and eleven times more among the children of native whites than among the children of our immigrants. And we believe that half the troubles between capital and labor will disappear when the workers have the education to which they are entitled, when they better understand their rights and how to get them, their obligations and how to observe them.

IN JUSTICE TO COLOMBIA

HOW TO SETTLE THE DISPUTE WHICH AROSE WHEN WE "TOOK" PANAMA — THE WIDE IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM IN SOUTH AMERICA — FOR A WIDER CANAL ZONE

BY

EARL HARDING

[The author of this article went to the Isthmus of Panama and to Bogotá in 1909 and 1910 to dig out the hidden history of the Panama secession. In this way he was brought in contact with the Colombian people more intimately perhaps than any foreigner could be who had not his special mission. The result of his two-years' study of the Panama question was presented to the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House of Representatives under the Rainey Resolution to investigate the "taking" of Panama.—THE EDITORS.]

OUR controversy with Colombia over the establishment of the Republic of Panama and our acquisition of the Canal Zone has been a sore spot in our foreign relations for a decade. Few of us in the United States have had time or opportunity to ascertain how serious the situation is, and in consequence we have passed it over lightly, imagining that it was of little or no importance.

But in Colombia, and in all Latin America, it is different. The intensity of feeling on the Panama question is a revelation to every citizen of the United States who goes south supposing that it is a fast-disappearing if not already a forgotten issue. There is some reference to "*la cuestion de Panama*" in every Colombian paper I have seen in the last four years. It is as live an issue in Colombia to-day as it was when news came from the Isthmus in 1903 that the garrison had been bribed to turn traitors, and that warships of the United States had prevented the landing of Colombian troops on Colombian soil to suppress the mutiny. The latest official map of Colombia (1912) shows the "Canal under construction," but no American Canal Zone and no Panama Republic. Colombian school children are taught that the "Department of Panama" is still legally a part of their country; that its seizure was in violation of a sacred treaty and that no son of Colombia should relax his antipathy toward the United States until that wrong shall have been righted. The feeling of Colombia as a whole is one of resentment against the United States. I have heard the Panama question discussed by brilliant men in the Colombian Congress, which every member attends in solemn dignity, wearing his faultless frock coat and silk hat and where many of the legislators read or speak three or four languages. I have heard this international issue talked in the wayside inns of the Andean trails, and in the huts of the peons. The most unlettered of Colombia's four million inhabitants — it is a country of extremes of culture and ignorance, of wealth and poverty — know something of "*la cuestion de Panama*." It is the "burning issue," with which even the tariff in this country does not compare. And through all the discussion of the question, high or low, runs a vein of bitterness against the United States for the loss of the Isthmus.

It would be serious enough if this feeling ended in Colombia, to us the nearest corner of the South American continent, as well as the richest — a country two thirds the size of Mexico, with tremendous undeveloped resources, whose commerce naturally should come to us rather than go to Europe. But the infection of antipathy does not end there; throughout the Spanish-speaking Americas, when you seek first-handed the reason for their distrust of the United States, the most frequent

answer you receive is this: "How do you expect us to *trust* you after the way you have treated Colombia?"

Diplomatic negotiations so far having failed, there has been growing in this country a sentiment in favor of submitting Colombia's claims to arbitration, on the theory that unless an equally fair and more effective method of adjustment can be agreed upon, the United States cannot consistently refuse longer to take the issue to The Hague.

So long as there was a Republican Administration at Washington arbitration seemed to be Colombia's only recourse, for without repudiating the acts of his own party a Republican President could not approach the Panama question from a point of view that could be reconciled with Colombia's. With a Democratic Administration arbitration should not be necessary, for in international disputes as well as disputes between persons settlements out of court leave little of the bitterness engendered by settlement forced by a court, and arbitration would involve years of delay. Judicial determination of some of the questions of fact relating to the Panama revolution would be now well-nigh impossible, for the most essential witnesses have died — many of them within the last four years. The expense of arbitration would be tremendous, and there would inevitably be scandals both in Colombia and the United States over the expenses and fees of lawyers and other agents who already have shown their hand by pretending to sell legislative and newspaper influence in behalf of Colombia. Instead of restoring friendly feeling, arbitration would prolong the bitterness.

And it is doubtful if in the end any award of damages, no matter how large, would satisfy Colombia.

The Colombian Minister to Washington, Mr. Julio Betancourt, has been pressing for arbitration because sentiment in his country has demanded some kind of action and the people there have grown impatient waiting for the United States to make the first move. But the truth is that there is no real consensus of public opinion in Colombia on the Panama question. Many of that country's leading men still entertain the most extravagant misconceptions of the facts at issue and particularly of conditions in the United States. No two political factions are agreed as to what would be an equitable settlement. You ask them, "What does Colombia want?" and they answer: "Colombia wants its rights; it demands the treatment that a sovereign and self-respecting people should receive from other nations." But when it comes to defining those rights explicitly in respect to the seizure of Panama, they are lost in a wilderness of discord. Before there can be an effective settlement there must be a crystallization of public opinion in Colombia, and a more general knowledge among its people of the rights and wrongs of the issue between the two countries.

Multifactional politics, with attendant jealousies and public distrust of party leaders, make it imperative that the negotiations should be conducted in Bogotá and with the greatest possible publicity. No one Colombian could be entrusted with the final negotiation of the Panama settlement without being the target of suspicion and distrust of his factional opponents. The two old political parties in Colombia (Conservative, or clerical, and Liberal) have been split into six groups. A seventh, the Republican party, a coalition of progressives, obtained a balance of power only long enough to elect the present President, Dr. Carlos E. Restrepo. The popular assumption is that any man who might effect the settlement of the Panama controversy would be the people's idol and the next President; wherefore every faction jealously guards against the allotment of this opportunity to one of its opponents. But a commission composed of a leader of each of the factions could deal directly with the American representative. A frank and full discussion of the facts in the presence of the Colombian people — putting all the cards on the table, so to speak — would soon lead to a better understanding, for it would quickly be apparent that the seizure of Panama was not an injury purposely inflicted by the people of one country upon the people of another, but that in each country there were provocations and misunderstandings.

It is a common error for us in the United States to assume that money will repair any injury, will buy any man or any measure in the Spanish-speaking countries, just as it is an equally common assumption below the Rio Grande that every Yankee is an imperialist and that our national characteristic is "Yanqui bluff."

The Roosevelt Administration assumed that Colombia's reason for rejecting the Hay-Herran Treaty for acquisition of the Canal Zone was purely a mercenary one — blackmail. It ignored the fact that the Colombian Constitution forbade alienation of any part of the national territory; it refused to wait for an amendment of that Constitution, but "took Panama," and for five years met Colombia's protests with the denial of the fact so frankly acknowledged later.

Colombia's petition for arbitration, presented by its Minister to Washington, Dr. Diego Mendoza Perez, was curtly refused. Through influences in the United States Dr. Mendoza was replaced by Enrique Cortes, a business associate and trusted agent of General Rafael Reyes, president of Colombia, who had fallen under the influence of Mr. William Nelson Cromwell, the attorney for the Panama Canal Company. General Reyes acceded to Mr. Cromwell's scheme to pacify Colombia, and to this end the "good offices" of the Roosevelt Administration were enlisted by Mr. Cromwell. The result was the negotiation of the Root-Cortes-Arosemena Treaty and its ratification by the United States Senate and by the Panamanian Government near the end of President Roosevelt's term.

This tripartite treaty provided for Colombia's recognition of the independence of Panama and the payment by Panama of $2,500,000 toward the Colombian foreign debt, the money to be advanced by the United States on account of rental for the Canal Zone. Thus the United States made no acknowledgment of responsibility for the secession of Panama and appeared only in the rôle of a beneficent neighbor, while Colombia was to bow to the humiliation of her dismemberment.

The fate of the Root-Cortes-Arosemena *Treaty shows* very plainly that merely money will not satisfy the Colombians. The publication of the terms of the proposed settlement met a storm of protest. President Reyes cabled to Minister Cortes to suggest to the United States that it make a naval demonstration off the Colombian coast to help him force ratification of the treaty, but his cable message leaked into the public prints in time to upset all his plans. Colombia rose in vehement denunciation. General Reyes's life was not safe. On a pretext of official business he made his way from the capital to the coast, slunk aboard a banana freighter bound for Europe, and has not since set his foot on Colombian soil.

Minister Cortes's political existence was snuffed out in the same blast of popular indignation. From Washington he went to Europe and two years later, when it might be supposed that his hated treaty had been forgotten (no president has ever since dared to submit it to the Colombian Congress for ratification) General Cortes landed unheralded at Puerto Colombia, the seaport of Barranquilla. He got no farther than the city. "Cortes the traitor" was met by a mob. They forced this one-time distinguished citizen to leave his carriage and walk through the dusty streets back to the ship from which he had debarked.

Similar ostracism and exile await any Colombian who shall propose a settlement incompatible with that people's sense of their national honor, which we in the United States apparently are prone to underestimate.

The Taft Administration at first attempted to adhere to the policy of its predecessor, but when Colonel Roosevelt made his frank public acknowledgment that he "took Panama," Mr. Taft decided to ignore Colombia's representations no longer. Loyal to his party and unwilling to compromise it even after Colonel Roosevelt's admission, Mr. Taft sought still to beg the real question of international good faith and national honor, and yet to pay the price, by offering to buy from Colombia a concession for the interoceanic canal route via the Atrato River, and the coaling stations on Colombia's islands in the Caribbean. The price was to be $10,000,000.

Colombia was to recognize the independence of Panama and call the old score with the United States settled with an arbitration of her proprietary interest in the Panama Railroad.

Colombia quickly recognized that this was a subterfuge; that the United States did not need the Atrato Canal route and that it was really offering $10,000,000 as the price for the loss of Panama. Again a mere money payment failed to satisfy. The proposal impressed one of my Colombian friends this way:

> It is as though my neighbor took without my consent some highly prized heirloom which could not be replaced; then when I confront him with his act, he does not say that he made a mistake or say that he is sorry he did wrong, but denies the act and at the same time further affronts me by offering to buy my old hat for a price which might approximate the intrinsic but never the sentimental value of my heirloom. Now if my neighbor hopes ever to restore good relations with me, a frank acknowledgment and apology are indispensable. Buying my hat at an exorbitant price in order to minimize his own offense and attempt to impress me with his beneficence will never make us friends again.

In this spirit Colombia rejected the tentative offer of $10,000,000 and awaited the advent of a Democratic Administration in Washington in the confident expectation that Secretary Bryan would promptly take up the Panama question and propose a method of settlement that would not affront the Colombian nation.

Mr. Bryan's delay in taking up the negotiations has been a disappointment to Colombia. It has been difficult for Colombians to understand at their distance from the scene why the Japanese and Mexican problems, the tariff, and currency could be more pressing than the one international question that has been uppermost in their minds for ten years. Colombia's suggestion at this time that the controversy be submitted to arbitration can be traced to the interest of American lawyers, press agents, and "technical advisers" who have pressed their services upon the Colombian Government. A few examples of the impositions which have been perpetrated upon Colombia's representatives in Washington will suffice to indicate the importance of preventing further scandal. We owe this to ourselves as much as we owe it to Colombia.

When General Rafael Reyes, before acceding to the presidency, came to the United States at the head of the Colombian Commission seeking a hearing on the Panama question, he entered in his account of expenses in Washingon $20,100 (gold) paid to "W. Morgate" for services as lobbyist and press agent. The other members of the Commission told me in Bogotá that they never saw "Morgate" and that General Reyes kept his identity a secret. All efforts to identify him have been unsuccessful.

Six years after this incident a Wall Street lawyer attempted to negotiate another sale of alleged influence to the Colombian Minister in Washington. This attorney apparently posed as the power behind the throne of the Democratic party, for the Minister, who was then Dr. Francisco de P. Borda, a very old but well-meaning gentleman, was elated with the contract which he entered into subject to his Government's approval. To a Colombian friend of mine Dr. Borda described his agreement with the Wall Street lawyer in this way:

"Colombia shall have justice at last, for I have made a contract with the Democratic party."

The Minister then assured my friend that this lawyer controlled the party leaders in Washington; that he sat in his office in Wall Street and issued orders to them, that he drafted the resolution for a Congressional investigation of the Panama question and sent it to Washington to be introduced. Of course he was simply another Edward Lauterbach in a different field. Fortunately the absurdity of his pretensions was communicated to Bogotá and his contract with the Colombian Minister was not approved. Since then this lawyer has suggested that Colombia was making a mistake in not retaining him, as he could carry its case to The Hague and obtain a judgment for at least $40,000,000.

Although such sordid motives have been in play behind the scenes, the sug-

gestion of arbitrating the Panama question has met with the approval of many who most earnestly desire to see international justice done, and who have jumped to the conclusion that arbitration is the way to go about it. Most of these people have reached this conclusion without knowledge of the political and social conditions in Colombia and perhaps mainly because they have not thought of the direct and simple solution of the problem.

To effect a "settlement that settles" the United States must make every possible concession to the national pride of the people that it injured. It can do this through a reapportionment of the territory of Panama that will satisfy the sentimental demand in Colombia for recognition of that country's sovereignty, and without violation of our treaty with Panama: at the same time such a readjustment can be made to correct the errors of judgment committed in our inexperience and haste in acquiring the Canal Zone.

From a military as well as from a commercial point of view the ten-mile Canal strip is not altogether satisfactory. The terminal cities, Panama and Colon, are excluded from American jurisdiction, and the dual government at the ends of the Canal has proved a continuous source of expense and annoyance, if not a menace. We have to oversee nearly every election, and we have to maintain a benevolent supervision over the local police and sanitary administrations.

We are creating at the Isthmus an artificial Bosphorus. It is destined to become the waystation and the crossroads of the world's commerce. In time there should be a tremendous city at Panama. Such a commercial centre can be developed economically and successfully only through administrative foresight. Common sense dictates that in developing the commercial possibilities of the Canal the terminal cities should be planned now with their great future in view; that the termini as well as the approaches to the Canal should be on American territory, under American jurisdiction. When we embarked upon our Canal enterprise its glamor as a military enterprise blinded us to its commercial *aspects, but* even now it is not too late to acquire the territory necessary for the growth of commercial centres.

Our treaty with Panama stipulates:

> The Republic of Panama further grants to the United States in perpetuity the use, occupation, and control of any other lands and waters *outside* of the Zone above described which may be necessary and convenient for the construction, maintenance, operation, sanitation, and protection of the said canal.

We can, with reason, require under our treaty the widening of the Zone to include the terminal cities and the entire watershed of the Canal. This would extend the Canal Zone southward to the headwaters of the Chágres River, which feeds the Gatun Lake, making a zone delimited by a line from the mouth of the Bayano River on the Pacific to Point San Blas on the Atlantic, nearly parallel to the Canal at a distance of approximately forty miles.

The territory south of this line should be returned to Colombia. It is occupied largely by the San Blas Indians. White men scarcely ever penetrate it. The San Blas tribe are still loyal to Colombia, although living in what the rest of the world calls the Republic of Panama. One of the most impressive incidents I ever saw was when, as the guest of the chief of the San Blas tribe, I rode with him from the Presidential Palace in Bogotá to the plaza facing the national capitol, where he knelt before the statue of Simon Bolivar, the Colombian Liberator, and, in the presence of an immense crowd, reverently kissed the Colombian flag as an expression of the voluntary renewal of his people's allegiance.

It would be more than an act of justice to return these people to the country to which they are loyal. Their territory is inconsequential, mostly an impassable swamp; but its return to Colombia would go farther than millions of American dollars to satisfy the patriotic pride of the Colombian nation.

To the north the Zone should be extended possibly a few miles for better control of the approaches to the Canal; but the entire width need be only from fifty to sixty miles to insure to the United States all strategic and commercial advantages. There would remain then to

the north of the widened Canal Zone the richest and most extensive part of the present Republic of Panama, in which a new national capital could be established at David, or at Bocas del Toro. Keeping faith with the Panamanians, the United States could continue to guarantee their independence, unless they at some time should wish to join themselves by petition to Costa Rica, and thus take the first step toward the Central American Federation.

I have discussed this suggestion of territorial reapportionment with several of Colombia's most influential men, and they have assured me that it would clear away an almost insuperable obstacle to an early and satisfactory diplomatic adjustment of this matter.

Political and social conditions in Colombia are ripe for the ending of the Panama dispute. The rising generation is prepared to recognize that Colombia, as well as the United States, should be careful to satisfy public opinion outside as well as within their own country, and that the Colombian Government, in making its demand upon the United States, should be so fair as to refute altogether the charges of cupidity that have been made against it by those who believed that it attempted to blackmail the United States.

Colombia has passed through a long political and economic sickness and is convalescing rapidly. In five years of nonpartisan administration since the flight of President Reyes, her finances have recovered from the effects of a long period of repudiation and depreciation. Her bonds have risen from 36 to nearly par. She has paid up all defaulted interest, nearly doubled her foreign trade, accumulated a surplus of $2,500,000, and is preparing for extensive public improvements. President Restrepo has restored constitutional government, state and municipal autonomy, and liberty of the press; and so long as these conditions obtain (and they seem to be on solid ground) there is not the slightest danger of Colombia returning to political revolutions.

THE CANAL AND ITS SURROUNDINGS

SHOWING THE WIDTH OF THE CANAL ZONE IF IT INCLUDED COLON AND PANAMA AND THE WATERSHED OF THE CHAGRES RIVER, AND SHOWING THE TERRITORY EAST OF THE CANAL THAT MIGHT BE GIVEN BACK TO COLOMBIA

It is an auspicious time to authorize the new American Minister to Bogotá to present as a substitute for arbitration a plan of settlement that shall take into full account the proud nationalism of Colombia.

It is possible, of course, for the United States to wear Colombia out with delay and in time bring that country to accept a purely financial adjustment. This might be in complete conformity with legal requirements, but still fall far short of what should be our objective — to win back the good will of Colombia and the confidence of our other Latin-American neighbors.

And while the American Minister, Mr. Thaddeus Thomson, is making his survey

of the situation, the present session of the Colombian Congress could show its good faith by starting an amendment to the Constitution so that the Canal Zone may be legally ceded to the United States and Panama's independence be recognized when satisfactory terms shall have been arranged. This step might save a year's delay; furthermore, it will be necessary in the end, for only by this formality can Colombia be satisfied and our title to the Canal Zone be cleared. Colombia can well afford to demonstrate by this step in advance that it is prepared to be reasonable whenever the United States shows a desire to meet it half way.

THE STRONG MAN OF CHINA

A PERSONAL STUDY OF YUAN SHIH-KAI, PRESIDENT AND DICTATOR

BY

PHILIP HALSEY PATCHIN

"WHY should I wish to be Napoleon, when I can be George Washington?"

With this answer President Yuan Shih-Kai recently epitomized his attitude toward the Republic of China.

Yet whatever he may think of himself and however much he desires to preserve the new form of government, the fact is that this old-fashioned Chinese has become dictator of China. He has taken the law into his own hands. He has even exercised the power of life and death.

My first glimpse of the great man of China was when he arrived in Peking in November, 1911. He came at the request of the tottering Manchu dynasty. He was the sole hope of the Empire. Yet the Manchus, by whom Yuan had been dismissed with ignominy only three years before, were not quite sure of his allegiance. Yuan came to Peking with two special trains filled with his own troops — specially picked men of Honan, his own province, many of them men of his own clan. The first train with its thousand soldiers preceded him by half an hour. The troops were drawn up around the station with fixed bayonets. Finally his own train arrived, carrying several hundred more troops, who also tumbled out of the cars fixing bayonets. Then Yuan himself appeared -- in his jacket of Imperial *Yellow*. He had won the right to wear it by his services to the old Empress Dowager, and its appearance sent a thrill of satisfaction through the waiting Manchus, for it assured them of his allegiance.

On the last day of December I had an opportunity to see Yuan Shih-kai at close range and to talk with him. He received me in the modern office-building constructed for the foreign office of China where he had established his headquarters as Premier. The place was surrounded by soldiers. The narrow street leading to it was heavily guarded at its entrance, and the gateway leading into the compound surrounding the foreign office held many soldiers, and was further protected by iron gates. Within the gates the grounds surrounding the building were covered with the tents of Yuan's modern bodyguard. There were soldiers everywhere, and good-looking soldiers, too. The entrance to the building itself was also guarded, and to gain access to the reception hall within one had to pass a dozen more sentries. Inside there was still more evidence of the military precaution which Yuan Shih-kai had taken.

Visitors were shown to one of several reception rooms, there to await Yuan's descent from his private quarters above. On this day he was quick to appear, accompanied by an English-speaking Chinese aide, a captain in the navy. The Premier was in Chinese dress and still wore his queue, as did most of the Chinese in

Peking at that time. It was winter and his long, flowing gown was heavily padded with cotton, after the Chinese fashion, and it gave to the Premier a short, squat appearance which he does not have at other times. He is, however, not tall, being perhaps five feet six. His most striking feature is his eyes. They are of a color difficult to describe — not the black eyes which most Chinese have, but a kind of dark bluish gray, and the lids lack the accentuated slant which characterizes nearly all Sons of Han. This serves to give Yuan's countenance a staring appearance, which is all the more noticeable as his eyes open still farther and his lips part when he is interested in something that is being said. He is gray. He wears a moustache, and on this day he had the stubble of a sparse beard.

Yuan was cordial in his greeting, and shook hands in Western fashion, at the same time bobbing the upper portion of his body after the fashion of the Chinese, whose custom is not to shake hands. Yuan, however, accepts the Western custom in dealing with Westerners. And of late he had picked up from his English-speaking aides a few English words of greeting, such as "Good morning" and "Good evening." Apparently, however, he has been too busy to learn his lesson thoroughly, for he uses the expressions indiscriminately, no matter what the time of day. On one recent occasion he used them both at once. He has carried his Westernization still farther and last spring startled Peking by appearing in a full dress suit and high silk hat. He has also removed his queue. When I saw this symbol of allegiance to the Emperor it was gray and short and thin. Yuan kept it until after the establishment of the Republic. Then he had it taken off. I have been told by people of his yamun that there was a great deal of discussion before the appendage disappeared. The difficult point was, Who would do the cutting? It was considered impossible to have a Chinese barber come in to sever the queue of the ruler of the land, for the barber, in Republican China, is a low order of man. A proposal to get the Italian tonsorial artist from the foreign hotel in the Legation quarter was also rejected, for the reason that this might offend the susceptibilities of the people. Finally the problem was solved by Colonel Tsai Ting-k'an, one of the President's aides, taking the

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THE STRONG MAN OF CHINA

THE MONARCHIST DICTATOR WHO IS PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA. THE LAST HOPE OF THE EMPIRE, THE FIRST LEADER OF THE REPUBLIC, AN OLD-FASHIONED CHINESE OFFICIAL WHO NEVERTHELESS TAKES ADVANTAGE OF WESTERN METHODS

GUARDING YUAN SHIH-KAI'S ROUTE THROUGH THE S

scissors in his own hand and doing the snipping.

Yuan talks to foreigners, who do not speak the language, through an interpreter and shows much interest in their opinion of events and in their opinion of him. When the interpreter translates he sits erect, looking directly at the speaker, nodding his head to show his comprehension, and keeping time with this movement with a series of throaty sounds indicating that he understands, in the manner of the Chinese, who punctuate every few words of what is said to them with deep noted "uh, uh, uh's." It is the sign of the scholar, and shows one's ability to comprehend. His responses to questions are quick and to the point.

But one gets a better idea of the man from the things he does than by seeing him. He came up from the South to Peking in the fall of 1911, in response to the urgent and repeated demands of his Manchu masters. He had been summoned several times before but had persistently declared that he was unable to come. The reason that he gave shows that he is not without a sense of humor. When he was dismissed in 1908 no one was more surprised than he to be info the edict from the Throne that he tiring on account of his lame foot. the Chinese way of saving Yuan's He had never felt any pain in his f when the first Imperial summon to him he replied that he could no cause his foot was still lame. Fi consented to return to Peking, but h about becoming Prime Minister he could have the office on his ow

Seven times the Empress D commanded him to accept this p seven times he refused, declaring unfit for such high office, and wi style Chinese humility suggested t Empress Dowager get someone els timately, however, he accepted, gaining from the Manchus promis concessions which made it seemingly ble for him to succeed in his fight constitutional monarchy.

One of his first steps was to bring the retirement of the Prince Re haughty, arrogant Manchu who Chinese hated and who also was re ble for Yuan's dismissal three years He then got the Throne to promise

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OF PEKING WHEN HE VISITED THE AMERICAN MINISTER

stitutional government and the establishment of a limited monarchy. But through the lack of money he was unable to carry on the fight. When he saw that the abdication of the Emperor was inevitable, he set about making himself the head of the Republican government, and in this he succeeded.

While he has his ideas of reform and of the value of Western learning and methods, Yuan is still the wily, Oriental politician. Intrigue has its place in his system of government. In forcing the Manchus out it was he who instigated the memorial to the Throne from half a hundred generals of the Imperial army, in which abdication was advised and which ended with the unparalleled assertion that "We await the Imperial commands with impatience." Yuan knows his people, and he believes that to rule them he must use a hand of iron, an occasional firing squad, and the great two-handed blade of the executioner.

The Manchus abdicated on February 12, 1912, and Yuan Shih-kai was immediately elected Provisional President by the Southern Congress at Nanking. He accepted, and then the rebel leaders demanded that he go to Nanking to take the oath of office. He was loath to leave his own capital, knowing the perils of the journey, but, under pressure, finally consented to do so. However, on the last day of February the troops in Peking mutinied. The capital was looted from end to end during two nights of a carnival of crime. The truth about the matter has never been told. It is said in Peking that the men looted because they had not been paid and because of an impending order that they cut their queues. In the South they say that it was all Yuan's doing and that he turned his soldiers loose in order to create a situation which would make it impossible for him to go to Nanking. However that may have been, Yuan did not go to Nanking. Instead, he took the oath of office as Provisional President in Peking on March 10th.

The Government in Peking at the time of the outbreak of Yuan's troops was in a sadly muddled condition for forty-eight hours. But when it was at last decided to take repressive steps it was done with a vengeance. Yuan summoned General Chiang Kwei-ti to his headquarters and

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ON THE FIRING-LINE DURING THE REVOLUTION

YUAN WAS THE FOUNDER OF CHINA'S MODERN ARMY, AND HIS HOLD ON THE SOLDIERY HAS BEEN ONE OF HIS CHIEF SOURCES OF STRENGTH

told him to put a stop to the disturbances. General Chiang was a man of the old school. He stood six feet and four inches, and wore a long, white beard which covered his broad chest, giving him a benevolent and patriarchal look that belied his ideas of what to do in an emergency. The general was too big and too old to mount a Chinese pony, but he had a small carriage. This he entered and, surrounded by his own men from Ngan-Hui—strong, aggressive men—and accompanied by two executioners, he took a trip through the streets of Peking. He left behind him a long

SIGNS OF UPHEAVAL IN THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

A SECTION OF PEKING AFTER THE MUTINY OF YUAN'S TROOPS ON FEBRUARY 29, 1912 — A MUTINY WHICH SAVED HIM FROM HAVING TO GO SOUTH INTO THE COUNTRY OF HIS ENEMIES. AFTER TWO DAYS THE RIOTING WAS PUT DOWN BY AN OLD-FASHIONED CHINESE GENERAL, WHO WENT THROUGH THE STREETS ACCOMPANIED BY TWO EXECUTIONERS WHO LEFT A LONG TRAIL OF HEADLESS BODIES BEHIND THEM

trail of headless bodies, and the looting and rioting came to an abrupt end. Chiang's way of doing things is Yuan's, and it is upon the old-time generals that Yuan depends for military support.

Those who have been with Yuan Shih-kai in times of stress and storm say that at all times he remains calm. It is said in Peking that on the night his soldiers broke loose, and when he realized that they were beyond all control, he simply moved from the upper floor of his building to the lower, where flying bullets, with which the air was thick, were not so apt to strike. Like most Chinese he took the looting of Peking philosophically. It was nothing more than what had happened in times gone by, or in a half hundred other cities of the land during the revolution. It will happen again whenever or wherever the Chinese soldier goes unpaid or hungry. It is an axiom in China that unpaid soldiery leads straight to looting and burning.

Yuan's personal courage is great, but he nevertheless provides for himself adequate protection from the assassin's bullet or bomb. Particularly is this true since January of last year when, on the streets of Peking, there came flying through the air, over the fringe of soldiers lining the street, a bomb which landed in the midst of the compact body of horsemen surrounding his carriage. The bodyguard melted away with the explosion. Horses and men went down and several of each were killed. Yuan's carriage horses, however, were still able to go on. They plunged into a gallop. Yuan settled down into his seat. Persons who saw him as he dashed by a point not two hundred yards beyond the place where he had so narrowly

YUAN SHIH-KAI ON HIS COUNTRY ESTATE

DURING THE INTERVAL TOWARD THE END OF THE EMPIRE WHEN HE WAS OUT OF FAVOR AT COURT AND IN ENFORCED RETIREMENT IN HONAN

of China's foreign-patterned army, and he has always taken keen interest in military affairs. As soon as he assumed the presidency he directed his energies toward making the army loyal to him. That he was wise is now being proved in China, where the troops of the Yuan government are whipping the rebellious elements of the South back to loyalty. Yuan created lieutenant-generals, major-generals, and brigadiers by the score. He disbanded as many troops from the South as he could pay off, in the meanwhile keeping those

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THE PRESIDENT OF CHINA

AS A GENERAL IN THE SERVICE OF THE MANCHU DYNASTY

upon whom he believed he could depend in an emergency. It was not long before this proved of great advantage. The struggle between Yuan and the Southerners has been almost as continuous since he became President of the republic as it was when he was trying to maintain the monarchy, although it has not been so bloody.

Last summer the National Council, a provisional legislative body in the control of the Southerners who were becoming dissatisfied with Yuan, adopted obstructive measures that for a time threatened the existence of the Government. Their tactics came to an abrupt end when the military took a hand by sending word that further delay would not be tolerated. There can be no doubt that this effective strategy was the work of Yuan Shih-kai.

After this Yuan became so powerful that Southerners like Sun Yat Sen, General Huang Hsing, Chen Chi-mei, Wen Tsung-yao, (an unsung hero who has far more to do with present-day events in China than Sun Yat Sen has, for example), began to suspect his intentions. This grew to a belief that there would never be anything in the Government for them if Yuan were permitted to pursue his course. It was not long before there was open opposition in the Southern press and finally a general anti-Yuan propaganda throughout the South. The provinces heard that Yuan was planning a *coup d' état* out of which he would emerge as Emperor.

The revolutionistic tendency of the South was, however, mostly in talk until the murder of Sung Chiao-jen in March of this year. He was a Southern leader of note, a man of ability, and a real patriot. He was killed in the railway station at Shanghai, just as he was about to start for Peking, there to lead the fight against Yuan in the Parliament. Charges were at once made in Shanghai that Peking was responsible for the crime. This Peking immediately denied. The murderer, however, was caught. He proved to be a paid assassin. Then the police captured the man who hired him. This man proved to have a connection with Yuan's Premier. It was enough. It was proved, said the politicians of Shanghai, that the Premier ordered the murder. And if this were so, there is no Chinese in the world who would not jump at the conclusion that if Yuan's Premier instigated the crime Yuan himself must have known of it.

Before the end of March, and while the case was still under investigation, word went filtering up the Yangtze Valley to the followers of Sun Yat Sen and the others to "be ready." Then Yuan Shih-kai brought to an end the long negotiation for a great foreign loan of $125,000,000 by signing the contract. The South broke into a flame of passion. Yuan without funds was a proposition difficult enough, but an affluent Yuan was well nigh im-

WHERE CHINA'S FIRST PRESIDENT WAS INAUGURATED

THE ENTRANCE TO THE FOREIGN OFFICE WHERE YUAN SHIH-KAI THEN LIVED, DECORATED FOR HIS INAUGURATION AS PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT ON MARCH 10, 1912

pregnable. The South protested against the loan — or at least the politicians of the South did. The rebellion that followed seems to be losing ground. Sun Yat Sen and Huang Hsing have fled from the country. It leaves Yuan Shih-kai again supreme.

To Western eyes he is a man of contrast. Here is an imperialist, the last defence of the Throne, serving as president of a republic. He is a patriot, but his methods are not our methods. He is a statesman enough to realize the benefits for China in modern thought and

YUAN SHIH-KAI'S FIRST OFFICIAL RESIDENCE AS PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT

modern ways of doing things, yet unlike the modern, foreign-educated official, Yuan Shih-kai clings to old methods. He has severed his queue, it is true, and he wears foreign clothes sometimes, particularly when in uniform, but he prefers the Chinese dress of old, while the new official revels in foreign clothes, especially the frock coat and the high hat, and in Western manners and mannerisms. Yuan is what is called in China an "old style" official. In the administration of his office he still adheres to some time-worn

things, although he is surrounded by foreign-trained men and modern thinkers as he has been for years. He was, in fact, one of the first of China's great men to utilize the services of men educated abroad. In his presidential orders President Yuan utilizes the style of the old Imperial edicts, although his orders are often more blunt than those the Throne used to issue. In one proclamation he issued, in telling of conditions immediately preceding the establishment of the Republic, he said: "Enmeshed in these difficulties, it was futile for me to pray for death, and requests for dismissal were refused. I indulged in secret griefs and hidden sighs. We could do naught but weep."

Such proclamations are as far removed from our methods as is the brutality with which Yuan deals with conspiracies. The morality of his course is not Occidental. But from either Eastern or Western standards the power and personality of Yuan Shih-kai marks him as one of the strong men of this time.

FORESTS OF USEFULNESS

HOW THE GOVERNMENT HANDLES ITS TREE CROP SO THAT THE FORESTS CAN BE FULLY USED AS WELL AS PROTECTED

BY

HENRY S. GRAVES

(UNITED STATES FORESTER)

THE National Forests grow more wood than they lose by cutting, fire, disease, and decay. A few years ago that was not true. Our forests are now constantly improving in condition. They used to be in worse condition every year.

In accomplishing this the first great task of the Forest Service is to prevent injury and destruction by forest fires. Our Western forests are peculiarly subject to fire because they are chiefly composed of coniferous trees and because in many regions there is a prolonged dry season during which the forests become very inflammable. The National Forests have a value in the trees alone of fully one billion dollars. The protection of this great national asset is simply one of business prudence. The task of protection is of great magnitude and is of such a character that only the public can successfully cope with it. There are 163 separate forests, not including the areas now being purchased in the Eastern mountains, and they cover a net area of 165 million acres, which is about four times the size of Missouri.

Much of the land is a wilderness, inaccessible and without means of communication. Its protection is not merely a question of developing an organization to fight fires; the forests must first be opened up so that it is possible to patrol them to fight such fires as start. There must be constructed a carefully planned system of roads, trails, fire lines, telephone lines, lookout stations, ranger headquarters, and other improvements. Without such a development a forest cannot be protected adequately, no matter how many men are patrolling it. The greatest problem of the Forest Service has been to extend its system of roads, trails, and telephones, and at the same time keep down fires under the handicap of the forests' inaccessibility.

There have so far been built about 16,000 miles of trails, about 14,000 miles of telephone lines, about 2,000 miles of roads

forest is like tinder and a great conflagration will follow which no human agency can prevent. Such a season came in 1910 in Idaho and the loss was very large. The present season in California developed similar conditions in which fire would have been very difficult to cope with. Though it is true that the forests cannot be fully protected in the extraordinary year until an adequate system of improvements is completed, yet even in the extraordinary year extensive destruction can be prevented if there are good means of communication, a proper fire-fighting equipment, and a well-trained organization. Every year the Forest Service puts out about 2,000 fires, many of which, if not handled promptly, would develop into great and destructive conflagrations. Measured in the value of property saved, the annual cost of the work is insignificant.

THE FIRE LOOKOUT

EVERY YEAR THE RANGERS DISCOVER AND PUT OUT ABOUT 2,000 FIRES, MOST OF THEM BEFORE THEY HAVE DONE ANY HARM

The second great task of the Service is

CUT, CLEANED, AND GROWING A SECOND CROP

THE CUTTING OF TWO BILLION FEET OF RIPE TIMBER SOLD BY THE SERVICE IN 1912 UNDER PROPER REGULATION ACTUALLY IMPROVED THE FORESTS

to get the timber in the forests into use; and it is being used in very large quantities. In the first place settlers are given wood and timber for their own needs, free of charge. Every year more than 40,000 settlers receive such free use to the value of about $200,000. Large quantities also are being sold to lumber operators. Last year nearly 6,000 separate sales of timber were made. The demand for the public timber is increasing. The last fiscal year showed nearly three times as much contracted for as during the previous year. The total was more than two billion feet, board measure. And the present use of the timber which the Service is encouraging increases the future value of the forests.

Whenever timber is cut on the national forests, the operation is so conducted that a new crop of trees will be established and the production of timber by growth will be continued. Before the forests were placed under the Service, the yearly growth did not equal the amount of timber destroyed. The repeated fires prevented re-growth in

A RANGER'S CABIN AND A FOREST SERVICE BRIDGE

THE 1,500 CABINS, CONNECTED BY TRAILS, ROADS, BRIDGES, AND TELEPHONE LINES, MAKE *FIRE-FIGHTING POSSIBLE* AND HELP THE SETTLEMENT, LUMBERING, AND STOCK BUSINESS IN THE FORESTS

many places, and the increase was less than the loss by fire, insects, and disease. To-day the reverse is the case. The total growth exceeds all losses. Some loss is still occasioned in over-ripe timber which is too remote to be marketed at once, and there is still some loss every year by fire and insects. On the other hand, the bare spaces caused by old fires are filling up with trees,now that they are protected, a great deal of ripe timber is being utilized, and twelve to fifteen thousand acres are being planted every year.

While the public timber is being used as needed in quantities not to exceed its production by growth, there is a great security

MAKING THE WILDERNESS ACCESSIBLE

PART OF THE 16,000 MILES OF TRAILS THAT THE FOREST SERVICE HAS BUILT IN ITS WAR AGAINST FIRE

THE CATTLE OF THE FORESTS

A FEW OF THE TEN MILLION ANIMALS THAT ARE FED EVERY YEAR ON A CONSTANTLY IMPROVING RANGE

to the people in the public ownership of a large reserve supply. In the administration of the timber, local requirements are first provided for; sales are not made for shipment elsewhere unless there is more than will be needed for local use and development. Small operators are encouraged in every way — in fact, more than 90 per cent. of the sales are to small men. Large sales are made where the timber is remote and heavy investments are necessary in building railroads or in other expensive improvements. In such cases adequate provisions are made to prevent monopoly. Speculation in, and monopoly of, public timber are prevented and the sales are made in a way to promote competitive conditions.

A time will come later on when the presence of the public timber will be of enormous importance in preventing the effect of private monopoly. At present there is a great deal of private timber being cut by a great many private operators. When this is largely cut and the bulk of the private timber remains in the hands of a small number of timber holders, competition will not exist to the degree to which it exists to-day. It is then that the public timber will serve a great use in regulating prices. Twenty-two private holders now own 450 billion feet, or about three fourths as much as the Government owns. Let the public take ample warning not to lose control of its timber asset, nor to permit its destruction by fire.

A FOREST NURSERY IN MONTANA

ONE OF TWENTY-FIVE IN WHICH ARE RAISED THE TREES WITH WHICH THE FOREST SERVICE RESTOCKS FROM TWELVE TO FIFTEEN THOUSAND ACRES EVERY YEAR

third great task of the Service is to
age the settlement and building up
country. The land which is to be
ermanently in the National Forests is
hiefly valuable for growing trees and
equired to protect the sources of
supply. Agricultural lands are
ble for settlement and pass to pri-
ownership. Settlers are wanted in
rests not only to help build up the
ommunities and states, but also to
te the development of the forests
elves. Settlers are needed to help
t the forests from fire. Every strip
red land is a fire line; every ranch is
tage-point for fire-fighting; every
r can be made a forest protector.
is not a great deal of agricultural
the forests because they are located
high, rough mountains. But here
here a possible mountain farm or
of farms can be located. The for-
re being classified very rapidly, so
n a short time all the agricultural
ot covered by heavy timber will
ilable for use. All this land goes
e home-seeker free, and he has
to comply with the legal require-
of residence and cultivation to
title to it.
re is some agricultural land in the
al Forests which is covered with
and very valuable stands of timber.
me of it there is as much as 18 or 20
feet for a single tract of 160 acres,
is the maximum area allowed to a
teader. History has shown that
ands are not settled upon when they
ven to the homesteader. The tim-
ake is too large. The homesteader
o a lumber company and moves out
is little fortune. The lumber com-
holds the land until the timber
s a satisfactory value. Then the
s lumbered and the agricultural land
or as high a price as can be secured.
is way agricultural settlement is re-
l and the homeseeker without means
t out. In the Northwestern States
of the best timbered lands were ac-
l by private owners before the Nation-
ests were established. This is usual-
timber at the lower elevations, on
ver bottoms, and lower slopes and benches. Much of it is being held by timber holders and is not being developed.

Where agricultural lands under heavy timber occur in the National Forests the policy is to dispose of the timber by sale at an early date and then to open the land for free homesteading. Thus in the Flathead National Forest a timber sale has just been made that in four years will make available nearly 10,000 acres of agricultural land. Another sale in the Kaniksu National Forest of Idaho will enable about 6,000 acres of good land to be homesteaded. Other sales now being made will accomplish the same end, namely, to promote settlement and to reach the real homeseeker. These areas stand out in sharp contrast to the thousands of acres of heavily timbered private lands near by whose soil is as good or better and whose development for agriculture is long delayed and always will be beyond the man without means. In this case it is private ownership and not public ownership that is blocking development.

Prospecting and mining in the National Forests are carried on under the same laws as on the unreserved public domain. The partition of the National Forests among private owners and acquisition by timbermen and others would place a very serious obstacle in the way of mining development. The prospector now works freely in the forests. If he discovers a mine, he may secure title to the land under the general mining laws. He has not only the use of the timber on his location for the development of the property, but if he needs it he can secure more from the surrounding public forests under a very liberal policy of free use. In contrast to this there are countless cases where prospecting and new development have been stopped through the acquisition of large areas by private owners for timber or other purposes. One of the difficulties has been that in the past the mining laws have been manipulated to secure public lands that were valueless for mining but very valuable for other purposes. Cases are on record where the mining laws were misused to secure heavily timbered lands, valuable water-power sites, water-holes controlling many thousand acres of public range lands

desired for townsite speculation, and strategic points controlling valuable rights of way. This practice has been stopped in the National Forests and probably the chief benefit is felt by the mining industry itself. Besides its inducements to homesteaders and miners the National Forests welcome the sheep and cattle men with their flocks and herds.

Every year nearly 10,000,000 sheep, cattle, and hogs find feed in the forests. In many portions of the Western forests nutritious grasses grow plentifully among the trees and in the parks, meadows, and other openings. This grass is utilized under a system of regulated grazing. Every settler has a few animals which run on the forests without charge or permit, and in addition grazing permits are issued to more than 25,000 stock owners for a nominal fee. The regulation of the use of the forage has produced very quick results in the improvement in the condition of the range. In many places overgrazing had reduced the carrying capacity for stock to less than 50 per cent. of the normal, and it was seriously interfering with the reproduction of the forest. In some sections where cloudbursts occur from time to time, overgrazing has resulted in serious erosion and increased flood damage which would have been checked under normal conditions of surface cover. By the right use of the grass, forest growth and stock-grazing now go hand in hand; the carrying capacity for stock is increasing and the stock comes off the mountains in better condition than formerly. Under public control of the range the old sheep and cattle wars have been stopped, monopoly is prevented, and the small man is protected against unfair competition. The introduction, through the Government's efforts, of improved methods of handling stock, the development of water supplies, the construction of drift fences, the extermination of rodents which injure the range, and of wolves, coyotes, bears, mountain lions, and other predatory animals, has enormously aided those who use the National Forest forage. Already there is a sharp contrast in the condition of the forest range and those areas outside which are still unregulated and subject to constant abuse. It is a matter of vital public interest that the open ranges be brought under a similar system of control in order to maintain the supply of meat for the country's needs.

The lumbermen, homesteaders, miners, and stockmen all benefit from the forests directly. The public benefits from their activities and from the improvement and maintenance of the Nation's timber supply. This, of course, is the primary object of the Service. But this brings with it a hardly less important benefit to the public.

Practically all the important rivers and streams of the West rise in the National Forests. Water from the forests supplies more than 1,200 irrigation projects and more than 300 water-power projects. Nearly 1,200 cities and towns derive their domestic supply of water from the forests, and this number will constantly increase. This public service is automatically furnished by the very existence of the forests under proper protection. Not only do they conserve the waters so vital to life and industry, but they are more and more coming to be used as a playground of the public, just as are the national parks. Already at least a half million people use the National Forests for recreation during the summer months.

The National Forests are standing proof that tree conservation is the right use of our resources and not their withdrawal from use, for with increasing use under proper regulation now the forests are improving and increasing in value and usefulness for the future.

It would seem as if forestry ought not to be a subject of controversy. Yet the fight over conservation has centred very largely about the National Forests and the Federal Forest Service. There are still many persons who do not believe that the Nation should continue to own the public forests but should distribute them among private owners as was being done with great rapidity at the time of the establishment of the National Forests.

The present system of administration of the National Forests was created eight years ago. The success of this system is no longer in doubt. The country can judge by the results which the Service has achieved.

OUR EXPENSIVE CHEAP LABOR

IMMIGRANTS WHO HAVE NOT SENSE ENOUGH TO KEEP WELL OR TO KEEP OUT OF ACCIDENTS — WHAT THEY COST THEIR EMPLOYERS AND WHAT THEY MEAN TO THE NATION

BY

ARNO DOSCH

A NEW aspect of the immigration problem is opened by some remarkable facts that recent industrial investigations have brought to light. These investigations seem to prove two startling propositions:

(1) That the immigrants who now come to this country in the largest numbers are not being assimilated but are being "lumped" in undigested foreign quarters at the great centres of industry.

(2) That "cheap foreign labor" is not cheap, even to the manufacturers who have eagerly encouraged the importation of unskilled foreigners to do the "muckers'" work. This class of eastern European peasant lacks the intelligence and initiative either to avoid the ordinary dangers of rough labor or to keep in efficient health; and their employers have to pay the bills for teaching them.

Of 40 cases of lead-poisoning found in the lead mills of New York City last year by the partial survey of the Factory Investigating Commission, the disease had in 38 cases attacked men of foreign birth. Of these, 29 were immigrants from eastern Europe. Considering the large recent Slavish immigration, this may not at first glance seem remarkable, but it takes on its real significance when it is understood that half the employees of the mills are of American birth and have worked in the lead industries for years. Among them occurred only one-twentieth of the cases of lead-poisoning. The explanation for this disparity is significant. The Americans know how to take care of themselves. Most important of all, they wash their hands and faces when they stop work. The immigrants from eastern Europe do not, unless some one stands over them and makes them do it.

As the dangerous trades in this country are rapidly falling into the hands of immigrants of this type, it is easy to see why industrial poisoning, and industrial disease in general, presents a pressing national problem. The victims are chiefly among the most ignorant and helpless people. The danger is there for the others, but they usually have sufficient initiative to escape it.

Take lead-poisoning, which we hear most about. Twenty years ago in the lead mills the work was far more dangerous than it is to-day, but the amount of lead-poisoning was apparently less. This was because, so the old lead workers say, the class of men formerly employed understood the danger and took precautions to escape it. These men were western Europeans or Americans. Negroes also did much of the dangerous work in some of the old mills and were looked upon as practically immune because they could see the white poisonous flecks on their dark skins and wash them off.

I have cited the case of lead-poisoning because it is the least complicated of industrial diseases. It finds its victims among otherwise healthy men in the prime of life. But the same racial disparity holds true in all the dangerous trades. Those who are the worst sufferers from all industrial diseases in this country are immigrants from eastern Europe. If it were not for the difficulty of making them look out for themselves, industrial disease would be very much easier to handle.

This gives the problem a new angle from which it has not previously been considered. It shows that, without letting up in the fight for better preventive

measures, the immigration aspect must not be neglected. In this respect an incident that occurred in a Brooklyn lead mill is illuminating.

The workmen in this mill are largely recent Slavish immigrants and, in spite of many admirable precautionary measures, the mill has had an unusual number of lead-poisoning cases. The victims become stevedores on near-by wharves and work when they can. The condition of many of these men is pitiful, but there is little sympathy to be gained for them around the lead works. Perhaps this story will explain.

A foreman in the works discovered one day that a Slav workman who had been with him several months was famished. Inquiry brought out the fact that on the last pay-day, as he left the works with his fellow countrymen, he had been seized by three neighborhood hoodlums and robbed. Several dozen other Slavs had seen him robbed, but none had interfered. He was merely the latest of a long line of victims. This had been going on for weeks. To stop the practice the American foreman, an Irish foreman, and the American engineer dressed themselves like "hunkies" on the next pay-day and went up the street with the workmen. At a convenient spot the three hoodlums selected a victim and were about to rob him when the two foremen and the engineer fell out of line and attacked them. The fight lasted several minutes before the hoodlums were driven off, but the workmen offered their protectors no assistance. Even the man whom they had saved from being robbed stood dumbly by.

So it is easy to see why the "leaded" stevedores on the Brooklyn docks receive so little sympathy. They have only the contempt of their former foremen, and their own countrymen pass them by indifferently.

The foremen who come in closest contact with these people do not understand that they are just emerging from serfdom, that they have become so inured to bad treatment by superior power and have had to stand by through so many generations while their fellows were mistreated that they cannot be expected to stand up and fight for either themse friends. The Poles, in pa had their nation broken up a the iron rule of foreign emp spirit has been all but crushed They cannot regain it in a da

And yet half a million of are entering the United Stat to be mistreated and exploite helpless victims of industrial industrial disease. If they c their experience and develop can citizens it is through no e own, but through the enlig interest of their employers tively few of these people e than a glimmering of Ame It is almost too much to expe should. Their children are q but they, children themselv to rise. The fact that they country means nothing in its village in northern Michigan as benighted as it was in Ro people have to be made to e sleep right. Mothers must b simplest measures for protecti of their babies. Grown men forced to wash their hands them from poisoning themsel

Welfare work of this kind and is being done. But it ca for half a million of these pe The task is too great. The the American people are not ab immigrants from eastern E borrow a figure from cooker lumping. They have lump mines, in the steel mills, in all ous trades. And the lumps by half a million a year. W of the United States have be tially foreign. The melting assimilating the raw material t dumped into it.

In these unassimilated lu dividuals are forever shifting; lumps remain hopelessly u Dr. Alice Hamilton, who st lead industries for the Illinois on Occupational Diseases, fou 10 to 40 per cent. changed the every pay-day. Usually th other mills for similar or equa

One lead mill with a pay-roll of
had had five hundred men in its
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were discovered.
requently happens in the lead in-
es that one of these men who has
lischarged for his own good because
s shown early symptoms of lead
ing has gone on to the next mill
ıt explaining why he was discharged
the last one, and, when discovered
to be a lead victim, has sought
yment at the third or fourth mill
hopelessly poisoned. To discharge
when lead-poisoning begins to show
ı may not be the right way to meet
ifficulty, but it is at least better
o keep him at work that will soon
ze him. He accepts his fate with
l-like resignation, ignores the warn-
f the company's doctor, and heads
ıt for the next lead mill. He does
ıuse he does not know what else to
There is no advantage in either
ıg or pitying him. He belongs to
f the great unassimilated lumps in
can life.

work of philanthropic surveys,
ıations into the condition of work-
y large corporations, and, particu-
the spread of welfare work has
the urgent necessity for dissolving
lumps before they get any larger.
ıns restriction of immigration down
point where it will not lump. Two
oppose this — large employers of
on labor and all those who, believing
iberty should be denied none, offer
sentimental objections to restric-
ı any form. But the country as a
is waking to the fact that immi-
from eastern Europe and southern
e must for their own protection
nitted into this country in smaller
rs. This is shown in the intelli-
support given the bill introduced
Congress by Senator Dillingham
ting the annual immigration from
untry to 10 per cent. of the number of the natives of that country already in the United States. This will affect only the immigrants from eastern and southern Europe and, denying real liberty to no one, will help to prevent lumping.

Those who offer sentimental objections do so because they do not understand the real condition. They do not know that these people are not enjoying the liberties of a free country. The best they get is paternalism, an enlightened sort of despotism. There is no blame attached to the people who practise this despotism. Indeed, they are only to be praised. They are doing the only work that is being done to prevent the lumps from degenerating into hopeless masses.

Having lured these peasants from the remote corners of Europe and huddled them in rough camps, their employers have soon discovered that, socially speaking, they have laid and rotted. Filth, drunkenness, and disease have followed one another in rapid succession. So they have seized upon modern scientific welfare work, and the welfare workers, finding a slow but docile people to handle, have been delighted with their progress. Welfare workers, doctors, and visiting nurses are the kindly autocrats over millions of men and women in the mining camps and great industrial centres. Every bit of work they do is good, but it is paternalism. It is all done with company money, spent on the company's employees for the company's benefit. In towns like those of the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company, which have advanced rapidly in welfare work, children are born into the world with the assistance of doctors paid by the company; they are baptized in churches built by the company and by ministers largely supported by the company; they go to company schools, they are kept clean by the company's nurse, they grow up to live in the company's houses, work for the company, and get their social life in club houses provided by the company. For the present it is necessary work and will have to be done in that same paternalistic way so long as the foreign immigration continues to lump. But it is not making independent American citizens. It is making a class of

people used to control in all their every-day activities. They are not the basis of a self-governing republic.

The answer of welfare workers to the charge of paternalism is that these people are not ready for democracy. They have to be led toward it gradually. Welfare workers look for signs of initiative as for the break of day. They cherish and repeat the stories of success. One of these is told by a doctor in the employ of the United States Steel Corporation in charge of the sanitary conditions and general health of a coal town in West Virginia. Finding a sick man in a hut with his family in a frightful state of filth and foul air, he removed the man to the hospital and kept him there a week. Some time later he visited the man again in the hut and was surprised to find it clean and wholesome. The man's Polish wife had visited him in the hospital and had had there a vision of cleanliness and sweetness that was entirely aside from her life's experience. She had been in America a number of years but the American ideal of cleanliness had never reached her before. No amount of good example, however, can lift some of these people from the degradation of centuries. Consider the tenements on the East Side in New York City where the bathtubs are used as receptacles for coal. Bathing is the most trying problem, especially in the dangerous trades where it is necessary. One lead manufacturer in Philadelphia pays his men twenty cents a bath and finds it a profitable investment in health and efficiency. The Chicago mill of the National Lead Company pays five cents a bath. At its Brooklyn mill the same concern has so arranged the lockers in which the men keep their street clothes and their working clothes that they can hardly pass from one to the other without getting a shower-bath, but it is not working very well. The men object on the point of modesty, and that old-world delicacy, which seems absurd to us, is counting its lead victims, too.

This can all be changed. The Slav, the Greeks, and the southern Italians can all be made into American citizens if they are handled in sufficiently small quantities and have an oppor live among and associate with A or Europeans who have already assimilated. But they are not that chance now. The best t getting is paternalism and, if kep any length of time, that is good for employer nor employee. Paterna dangerous. If the employer has for good over his employees he has for evil. It draws hard and fas between classes. It means an aristocracy and a conscious workin that will eventually provide the ma terial for just such revolutionary ments as the I. W. W. is now lead this country. The most complete of paternalism ever attempted i country was the town of Pullman, failed. It is to be hoped that the pa mining camps will also fail. Nor is any slur in this. Every enlightene fare worker looks forward to it wants to see his charges chafe und autocracy. Until they do they will be Americans.

The chief difficulty in the way stricting immigration lies in the f common labor. The United Stat Corporation could have used h ten thousand more Slavonians was able to get. Every other bi and milling concern is in the s dicament. But, from the natio of view, it is better that they s They are devoting their energi the production of raw material which is shipped out of the co or in only the first stages of ma The less raw material leaving th the better. Common labor is u exclusively to handle it, so the mon labor the better we are off a Compare the industrial conditi United States with that of The exports that leave our ports one fourth the skill and wo and consequent value of the ex leave Germany. In Germany labor is becoming steadily sc ten years, it is said, there will untrained man in the Germa This is practically true to-d Common labor is much les

n it is supposed to be. But it has ays been plentiful in this country, so ıstry has come to count on it. But it ld get along better with less. Scarcity abor inevitably necessitates the use of ›r-saving devices.

f common labor had not been so plenti- occupational disease would never have ›me so serious a problem. In the first :e, when men are scarce employers e care not to lose any, but, more im- tant still, machinery is then substituted men in the dangerous trades. The l industry has given an example of this. began, for reasons of economy, sub- ıting enclosed machinery for the gerous work of separating white lead n the scraps of metallic lead which had ed to corrode. This proved such a saving n in labor and material that in the : mills entirely enclosed machinery dles the lead in all the formerly dan- ›us transitions from the drying pans to lead-in-oil paste. This has done away n more labor susceptible to industrial ase. The latest labor-saving device crane which has eliminated the dusty el-barrows that counted their victims the hundreds. This has also proved n an economy that the lead companies are experimenting with mechanical means for stripping the beds where the white lead is formed. Portable exhausts are in use in some lead mills, but the whole operation is still dangerous and clumsy. When that problem is solved, lead will be produced much more cheaply, lead mills will be perfectly safe, and the amount of common labor will be cut at least in two. The devices already in use by the National Lead Company have in the last ten years cut down the necessary common labor by 25 per cent.

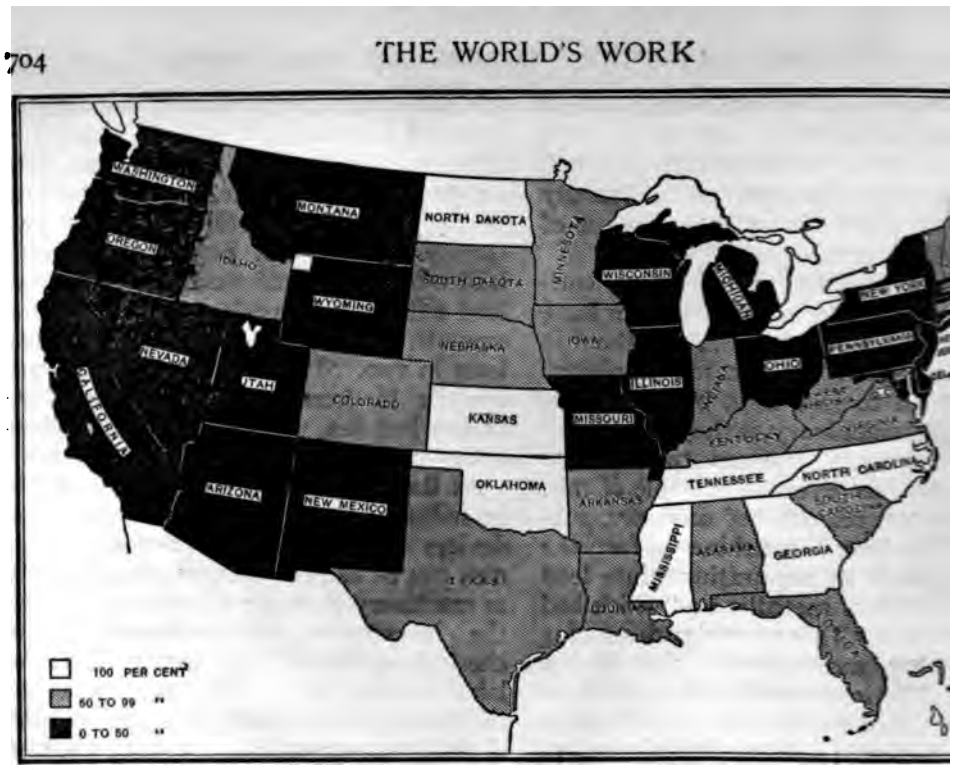
At least an equal saving could be made in industry as a whole by labor-saving devices now in existence. But so long as men can be had to do the work as cheaply as machinery there is no incentive to make the investment. If immigration were checked sufficiently to make common labor less available, this incentive would then bring about so rapid a substitution of labor-saving machinery that the demand for common labor would fall off and, in its place, there would arise a greater demand for skilled labor. We could then approach the German industrial ideal with industrial accident and industrial disease under control and the rapid disappearance of common labor.

HE CHURCH MILITANT AGAINST THE SALOON

N THE ANTI-SALOON LEAGUE, LED BY A COUNTRY PREACHER FROM THE JASPER CIRCUIT, HAS MADE THE SALOON AN OUTLAW IN 72 PER CENT. OF THE AREA OF THE UNITED STATES.

FRANK PARKER STOCKBRIDGE

NEARLY three quarters of the area of the United States is "dry" territory. Half the American people live out of reach of a licensed saloon. ı is in a large measure the work of the i-Saloon League, the militant Church practical politics. The League has e more in twenty years than the Prohibition Party has in fifty. For twenty years it has been testing and proving the efficiency of its political methods, until now it can forecast with a reasonable degree of certainty just what the people of any given part of the United States or the whole United States will do with the prohibition question whenever it is made an issue. It has become probably the



THE GROWTH OF NO-LICENSE TERRITORY

WHITE STATES, ENTIRELY PROHIBITION TERRITORY; GRAY STATES, MORE THAN HALF THE POP PROHIBITION TERRITORY; BLACK STATES, LESS THAN HALF IN PROHIBITION TERRITORY. NEA QUARTERS OF THE TERRITORY IN THE UNITED STATES, CONTAINING HALF THE POPULATION, IS

most active and effective political agency in the country.

The Anti-Saloon League is not a political party. It is a league of organizations, and these organizations are, chiefly, the Christian churches of America, of almost every denomination, creed, and sect. The Anti-Saloon League is, in fact, the Church in politics — the modern "Church Militant." And the Holy War in which it is engaged is the nation-wide crusade against the saloon.

Many people — politicians especially — think the only way to accomplish reforms is to organize a new political party. The Populists thought so, but many of their doctrines, which now form part of the platforms of our present-day parties, made no headway until long after the Populist party was dead and gone. Conversely, there never was a Woman Suffrage party. And the Anti-Saloon League, working for a single object through existing political machinery and parties, has accomplished in twenty years what the Prohibition party never even partly succeeded in doing — it has made the prohib a live one in almost every stat dominant issue in many states.

When the League was organiz years ago, outside of a few thinly prohibition states there was ha on the map of the United St liquor was not sold openly a To-day, 72 per cent. of the to the United States — 2,130,7 miles — is "dry" territory. nine states in which it is ille liquor anywhere in the commo

Georgia	North
Kansas	Oklah
Maine	Tenne
Mississippi	West
North Carolina	

There are ten other states in v than 90 per cent. of the total are These states are:

Alabama
Arkansas
Colorado
Florida
Kentucky

Arkansas has just passed a law requiring a petition signed by all the adult white men and women in any community before a saloon can be opened, practically insuring state-wide prohibition.

On the other hand, there is not a single state that is entirely "wet." New Jersey comes nearest, with only four tenths of one per cent. of its area prohibition. Three quarters of Pennsylvania is "license" territory. But Illinois and Missouri are each 72 per cent. "dry" and 58 per cent. of New York State is prohibition territory.

The Anti-Saloon League has hardly made itself felt as yet in the larger cities. It is working toward the cities — surrounding them with areas of prohibition territory and masses of prohibition sentiment. All the nine states now having state-wide prohibition laws are distinctly rural communities. Only slightly more than 20 per cent. of the population of any of them live in the cities. Only two of the prohibition states have cities of 100,000 population — Georgia and Tennessee. More than half the people of seventeen other states live in territory that is "dry" under local option laws. Nine of these states have no cities of 100,000 population. Six others have one such city each, and Minnesota has two. There are thirteen states in which between 25 and 50 per cent. of the people live in "dry" territory, and in these thirteen states there are twenty-two cities with a population of 100,000 or more. In the remaining nine states and the District of Columbia less than 25 per cent. of the population live under prohibition laws, and these states contain fifteen cities of 100,000 population or more, in which 71 per cent. of their people live. With this situation as its encouragement, the Anti-Saloon League now announces its intention to attempt to bring about an amendment to the Federal Constitution prohibiting the liquor traffic throughout the United States.

Whether the same elements of strength that enable the League practically to dominate politics in the rural states and in the rural districts of most of the other states will prove strong enough to make national prohibition an issue at the next Congressional election, as the League plans, or even at the tenth Congressional election from now, I do not attempt to predict, much less to forecast the result when the issue shall be squarely raised. But the League has accomplished results in Washington. It can point to a long list of prohibition legislation enacted at the Capitol as a result of its efforts, beginning with the abolition of the canteen from the army posts and winding up with the Webb-Kenyon law, passed in the last days of the last Congress by a two-thirds majority in each house over President Taft's veto, forbidding the shipment in interstate commerce into "dry" territory of intoxicants intended to be sold.

This latest evidence of the power of rural influence in Congress gave the final fillip to the League's long-cherished plan of a nation-wide campaign for national prohibition. Of course, that is a tremendous undertaking, but on the other hand few people who have not studied its progress know the power of the Anti-Saloon League. It has won victory after victory against the political forces of an entire state, gaining its points in a hostile legislature and carrying county after county against all the money and political power of the liquor interests of the world's greatest whiskey markets. The Church in the form of the League is far abler in politics than is the saloon. The reason is clear. It is the old story of a conflict between money and a moral principle. And whenever the issue between dollars and principles has been raised in this country, principles have always won in the long run. Let me quote from the Rev. Purley A. Baker, general superintendent of the League:

> The Anti-Saloon League is the federated Church in action against the saloon. Its agents are of the Church and under all circumstances loyal to the Church. It has no interests apart from the Church. It goes just as fast and just as far as the public sentiment of the Church will permit. It has not come to the Kingdom simply to build a little local sentiment or to secure the passage of a few laws, nor yet to vote the saloons from a few hundred towns. These are mere incidents in its progress. ***It has come to solve the liquor problem.***

in 1908, and the next year Tennessee became entirely "dry" by prohibiting saloons within four miles of any church or schoolhouse and forbidding the manufacture of intoxicants within the state. South Carolina provided for county prohibition by referendum, and Wyoming abolished all saloons outside of incorporated towns.

By 1910 the liquor interests began to be thoroughly alarmed. They started backfires in several states against the prohibition wave. There were some reactions in 1910 and 1911, although the two years closed with important gains for the Anti-Saloon League, not the least of which was the decision of the United States Supreme Court upholding the 21-year prohibition law enacted by Congress for the old Indian Territory, now part of Oklahoma. And the years 1912 and 1913 have been marked by advanced temperance legislation in seventeen states.

The two greatest victories for the League in these last two years have been the adoption, by referendum, in West Virginia, of a state-wide prohibition law to take effect January 1, 1914, and the passage by Congress of the Webb-Kenyon law, which the League regards as the crowning victory of its twenty years of effort.

If the Washington Bureau of the League had never gained anything more than this Webb-Kenyon law it would have demonstrated the political power of the Anti-Saloon League. The strongest argument the League has to meet is the contention, often made in good faith by people who would be perfectly willing to see every saloon closed, that prohibition doesn't prohibit. "You can't enforce prohibition laws," is the plea on which they refuse their support. Under the famous "original package" decision of the Supreme Court, there was no power to prevent the shipment of intoxicants into "dry" territory from across state lines, and it was difficult to enforce even state-wide prohibition. Since the passage of the Webb-Kenyon law more of the legally "dry" spots of the United States are actually more "dry" than ever before.

Washington Bureau had been
hed in 1898, with the Rev. Edwin C. Dinwiddie, a Lutheran minister, as its legislative superintendent. It began with the fight against the canteen at army posts, which it won with the help of the W. C. T. U. and other temperance organizations. It brought about the enactment of the law compelling the publication of the names of holders of Federal retail liquor tax certificates. This has been of the greatest value in the law-enforcement campaigns of the League, for few illegal liquor dealers care to ignore the Federal Government, however contemptuous they may be of local police powers. And, through the League's work, Congress in 1906 appropriated $25,000 to employ detectives to stamp out the sale of liquor to Indians.

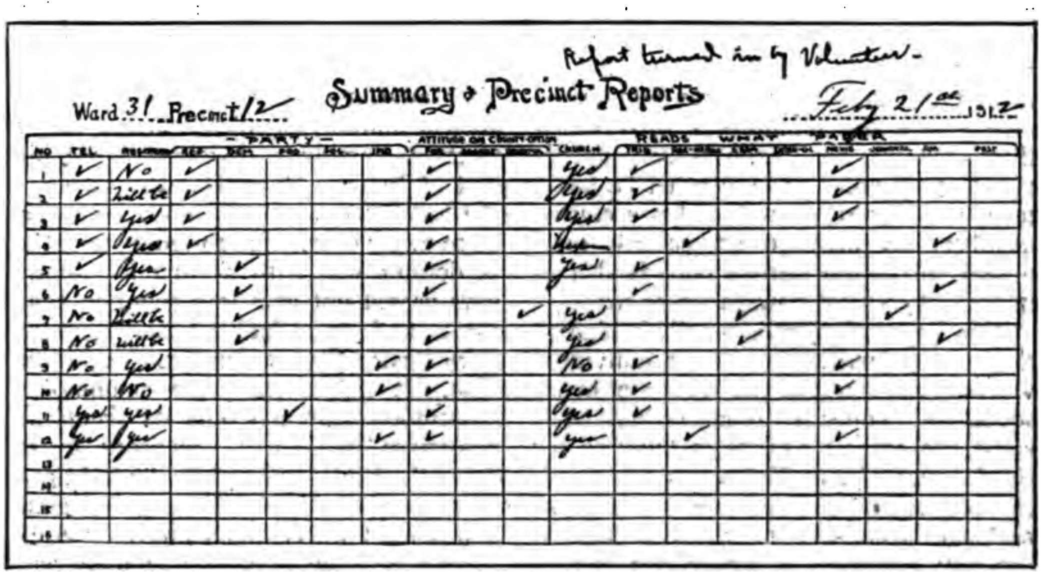
Commissioner Leupp sent for Mr. William E. Johnson, a young man who had been active in anti-saloon work in the West, and gave him a free hand to "clean up the Indian Territory." Mr. Johnson's fourteen-months' war on the whiskey-peddlers was as exciting as any chapter in the history of the taming of the Wild West. A quarter of a million bottles of whiskey were smashed, 76 gambling houses were destroyed, more than 1,000 arrests were made, and several outlaws were killed, while in this campaign and the later work in the other reservations eight of Mr. Johnson's officers lost their lives at the hands of the whiskey ring. But the sale of liquor to Indians was effectually stopped in Indian Territory and elsewhere, and the 4,173 convictions obtained in local courts are pointed to by the Anti-Saloon League in refutation of another of the arguments against prohibition — that "you can't get juries to convict in liquor cases."

At Mr. Dinwiddie's call the Anti-Saloon League can at any time put into Washington on short notice more and abler lobbyists (I use the word without any improper implication, for the League's lobby is not one for private gain) than the supporters or opponents of tariff schedules, currency bills, or any other special legislation ever could. The lobby that backed up the Webb-Kenyon bill numbered 270, and came to Washington from 32 states. It represented 24 tem-

perance organizations and the governing bodies of 15 religious denominations. Their campaign was thoroughly organized. The forenoons were spent in personal work with Senators and Representatives. Every afternoon a meeting of the entire delegation was held to report progress. A banquet was given, to which law-makers were invited. The same tried-and-tested tactics that have won Congress a thousand times were the tactics that lobbied the Webb-Kenyon bill through.

The strength of the Anti-Saloon League, however, lies not in its work in Washington but in its habit of taking advantage of every opportunity that arises, anywhere in the country, to gain a point for prohibition. Its whole policy is opportunist. It works along the lines of least resistance and goes with public sentiment instead of against it. The methods of the different state leagues vary, of course, with local conditions, but they are always the methods of the practical politician — that is the secret of the League's success. It is the whole scheme of its work.

Perhaps as efficient a political organization as exists anywhere is that built up in Chicago under the direction of Mr. E. J. Davis, superintendent of the Chicago District of the Illinois Anti-Saloon League. The League's programme for Illinois is the modest one of the passage of a residence district local option law, a better law to enforce prohibition in "dry" districts, and a county local option law. The League is opposed to voting on the saloon question in Chicago or Cook County, which includes Chicago, until the saloons have been driven out of the residence districts. This may be opportunist politics, but it is good politics because it does not demand results impossible of achievement.



PREACHERS AS POLITICIANS

A SAMPLE OF THE PRECISE AND COMPLETE REPORTS ON VOTERS THAT HAVE ENABLED THE ANTI-SALOON LEADERS IN CHICAGO TO CARRY ELECTIONS IN "WET" DISTRICTS

As an illustration of the practical way in which the Anti-Saloon League goes into politics, let me call attention to the organization of the Ward, Senate District, Congressional District, Chicago Advisory, and Cook County Advisory committees of the Illinois League. The unit is the Ward Committee, made up of one member from every affiliated church in the ward, with additional members from churches of more than 350 communicants. One member from every church serves on the Senate District Committee, and one from every church on the Congressional District Committee. The Chicago Advisory Committee is made up of two members

from every Ward Committee, and the County Committee has three members from every Senate District Committee.

How the work of these committees is subdivided and parcelled out among sub-committees is an interesting point. The "Captains of Ten" are a highly important part of the political machinery of the League. They are its scouts, its collectors of information, and to a certain extent its ultimate executives in carrying out the campaigns. Whenever a polling list comes out, either for a primary or an election, the names for every ward are given to these "Captains of Ten," ten names to every captain. Within a day or two there is a report in the Anti-Saloon League headquarters on every voter in the city. One of the charts reproduced here shows the minuteness with which these reports are made — such details about every voter as to whether he has a telephone, has registered, and is a church member; his attitude on county local option and — the League regards this as important — what newspaper he reads.

This is practical politics. This kind of minute information about the individual voters is the secret of the success of every successful political organization. And while the Illinois League is building for the future so far as Chicago is concerned, it occasionally demonstrates its present political strength — as when it elected the Rev. Frank G. Smith to the legislature, on an independent ticket and a straight-out Anti-Saloon platform, in a Republican district against the candidate of the Lorimer machine. Three workers in every precinct in the state, who can be relied on to put in forty to fifty hours of work every election, is the ultimate aim of the Illinois League as to organization.

I have told somewhat in detail of the way the League works in Chicago because it illustrates precisely the main point of strength of the whole movement — that it works in politics exactly as experience has shown political work must be done to be successful. It takes no stock in enthusiasm and does not rely upon prayer and hallelujahs to carry wards and precincts. It lobbies at state capitols just as it does at Washington. Its representatives argue before committees and button-hole members, but they do not rely on argument and persuasion to move legislators. They see to it that the individual members hear from the folks at home. They organize mass-meetings and circulate petitions in the members' home districts. They start local campaigns against the reëlection of members who oppose them. Mr. Baker tells of one state where the League had to defeat 87 members of the legislature before the politicians began to take it seriously. In short, the Anti-Saloon League is in politics all the time and is "playing politics" all the time, according to the well-established rules of the game. And it gets what it wants mainly because it wants only one thing and does not go after anything else. It is not trying to abolish murder, cigarettes, arson, turkey-trotting, gambling, divorce, or the high cost of living. It is after the saloon, in the belief that when that goes there won't be so many other things needing abolition. It doesn't rest with getting local-option laws passed but goes into counties, townships, and municipalities and organizes "dry" campaigns under these local-option laws. It makes itself the champion of law-enforcement and puts its agents and detectives into "dry" territory to run down the bootlegger and the "blind tiger." It is on the trail of the saloon every minute and doesn't worry about anything else.

Its work is all directed from Westerville, a quiet little German village of 2,500, the seat of Otterbein University, twelve miles from Columbus. The League moved there from Columbus a few years ago because the village offered it a $10,000 tract of land if it would build its publishing plant there. There was no money available, but the League moved on faith. Now the $125,000 plant is practically paid for, though two frame dwellings serve as office-buildings for the headquarters staff of 700 employees. Here are published 31 different state editions of the League's official organ, the weekly *American Issue*, with a circulation of 430,000; the *New Republic*, edited by Mr. William E. Johnson, the man who put the Indian Territory whiskey-peddlers out of business; the *American Patriot*,

a monthly magazine, and enough other temperance literature to bring the total output of the plant up to the equivalent of 250,000,000 book pages a year.

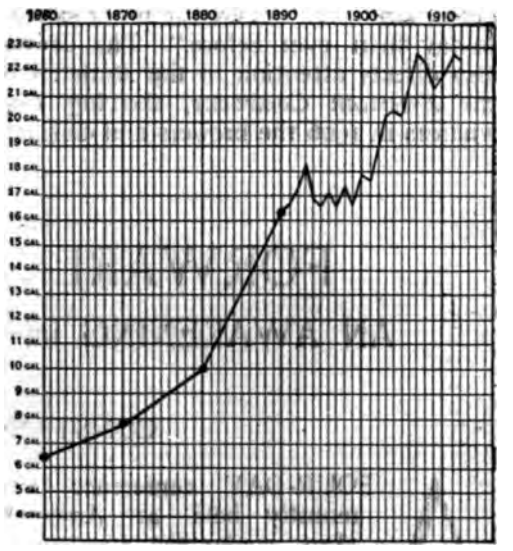
At Westerville, too, is the headquarters of the League's evangelistic arm, the Lincoln-Lee Legion, with the Rev. Howard H. Russell, founder of the League, at its head as general secretary. More than a million boys and girls in the last ten years have signed the Legion's pledge, said to be the same as the one drawn up by Abraham Lincoln and administered by him to Cleophas Breckenridge and other boys in the South Fork schoolhouse. The name of Robert E. Lee was linked with Lincoln's in the Legion's name this year. On November 9th, this year, the day known as "World's Temperance Sunday," Dr. Russell expects to double the membership of the Legion by enrolling a million more signers of the Lincoln pledge in a single day.

On that same day the Anti-Saloon League plans to launch its programme for "the next and final step," national prohibition, in connection with its national convention at Columbus, where governors, senators, and bishops are to be the speakers, and where the plan for raising the "Jubilee Fund" of $500,000 to carry on the campaign for national prohibition for five years is to be perfected.

The Anti-Saloon League is no one man's work, no one man's property, and no one man dominates it. To name the men in its corps of salaried workers who have done in their respective fields work as effective in its way as that of Mr. Dinwiddie in Washington, Mr. Wheeler in Ohio, or Mr. Davis in Chicago, would be to print a roster of the League. Nor does one church or denomination control it. Bishop Wilson, still its president, is a Methodist, and so is Dr. Baker. That, however, is merely a coincidence. The roster of the Illinois League, which is typical, includes in its state board delegates chosen by and representing officially the following churches and religious organizations:

The Baptist Church, the Illinois Baptist State Association; four Conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church; the Presbyterian, United Presbyterian, Congregational, Disciples, United Brethren, Protestant Episcopal, M. E. South, Christian, Methodist Protestant, German Methodist, Universalist, United Evangelical, English Lutheran, Brethren, Swedish Lutheran, Swedish Baptist, Swedish Methodist, and Norwegian Lutheran Churches; the Swedish Evangelical Free Church, the Evangelical Association, the Swedish Temperance Society, the Independent Order of Good Templars, the Christian Endeavor Union, and the Catholic Total Abstinence Society.

It would be hard to make up a list more inclusive and more representative of militant Christianity than that.



CHECKING THE HABIT OF DRINK

THE PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION OF ALL LIQUORS, WHICH DOUBLED IN THE DECADE BEFORE THE ACTIVITY OF THE ANTI-SALOON LEAGUE BEGAN BUT WHICH HAS GAINED MORE SLOWLY SINCE AND NOT AT ALL IN THE LAST SIX YEARS

The real work of the League that has won its victories has been done by the men in the field, four hundred and more who are giving their lives to the work and playing politics, good politics, practical politics, but always clean politics, in the name of the Church and the cause of prohibition. More than a million persons are regular contributors to the financial support of the League. A force of volunteer workers is ready to take the field at every cross-roads in every state — the greatest army, the League's leaders claim, ever organized for a single cause. It is not a political party and it never can

be one. It has no party platforms to worry over, no statesmen to educate.

Even the statistics of the Internal Revenue Office, showing an annual increase in the per capita consumption of intoxicants in the United States, do not worry the Anti-Saloon League. "Plot the curve of the increase," it says, in effect, "and you will see that the percentage of annual gain is less every year. And, since half the people of the United States now live in 'dry' territory and half the people who live in 'wet' territory do not drink, we know there are fewer people drinking. There are fewer saloons to-day than ever before." The League also directs attention to the statistics of the *American Contractor*, showing that whereas in 1906 the brewers and distillers of America spent $14,578,000 in new b ings and extensions of their business, the churches only $5,632,751, condi were more than reversed in 1912, whe churches spent $14,870,506 on new pl against the liquor people's $2,937, and the first four months of 1913 sho times the expenditure for new chu as for additions to the brewing and tilling facilities of the country.

With the country preacher from Jasper circuit at its head, the Ch is not only militant but pract The effectiveness of its organiz and its singleness of purpose a the Anti-Saloon League a tremen force in shaping the politics of United States and the living condi of its people.

FORWARD TO THE LAND

AN AWAKENING IN RURAL NEW ENGLAND

BY

CONSTANCE D. LEUPP

A FOUR-DAY conference was recently held at Amherst, Mass., under the auspices of the State Agricultural College, and inspiring testimony was given that rural New England is getting together, organizing, which means becoming efficient.

Æsop's Fables have been read for a hundred years by the pupils at the little red school houses, yet the moral of the fable of the bundle of sticks is only just beginning to find acceptance in the countryside. There are many difficulties which are insurmountable for one farmer, but which are nevertheless easily handled by a group, even though none of the group is of as strong a personality as the one individual. New England has had plenty of sturdy individuals but the New England farmers' very individualism has led to failure and abandoned farms.

But in the last half-dozen years a change s begun.

At this Amherst meeting the Rev. Persons, a pastor in the little tow Casanova, N. Y., told how he had bee that town for seventeen years befor himself woke up. Then he was c upon suddenly to preach a fu sermon four miles out in the coun He found himself in a room full of pe whom he did not even know by sight.

"These people's ancestors went church," he said to himself, "and the not. The village church is respons for the country neighborhood, and nob is going to take its job."

He was wise enough to know that would have to begin with some other t a church service to get them all worl together, and he began with a field which developed into a fair. It was not usual sort of a fair devoted to horse-ra and fakir side-shows. It was the old-f ioned fair as it used to be before the i became commercialized. No admission charged and nothing was sold on

ıds; the whole countryside brought ı baskets and came to enjoy the sports to participate in the exhibits; there ı plowing contest for which the young had been practising for weeks, and hich they were all beaten by an old, ıan with a long, white beard, a lame ;, and an ancient plow. There was raditional greased pole to be climbed, other games and contests. There regular exhibits of preserves and produce, etc. The whole day's tainment cost $150.

rhaps this does not seem to be church ; but the pastor showed that it was. good hard work which preceded the ınd the friendly rivalry of the contests :hed a species of fellowship and good- ıitherto unknown among these people; ' jealousies and bickerings vanished, le discovered their neighbors, and astor proceeded with a programme of ng them together through the long, winter with a series of fortnightly ls. He started four or five of the g people making a study of the his- of the Jews, and the delivering of their s was made the excuse for the meet- at one farmhouse after another. No vas put to any expense at these meet- and everybody was invited.

Jsually there was an attendance of t seventy," said the pastor, "but on ıights when it was sleeting and pitch the attendance fell off to about fifty."

Jobody particularly wanted the ls when we began," he went on. "I to butt in. At one house where I ı the family was on the inside, and I ıe outside, and we maintained those ılly relations throughout the inter- I enlarged on what we planned to nd they said they had no objections. by the happy accident of being able something for them in time of trouble ıde my way into that house finally, later we had one of our best meetings ."

the meanwhile he has drawn the le into the church by the simple lient of holding a series of afternoon evening services in the schoolhouses hose who live far from town. Then eard there was to be a dance in a district where his Sunday school attendance did not satisfy him.

"Just what I want; I'll be there," he sent word; and at ten o'clock, when there was a lull in the dancing, he took the floor and outlined his plans. The following Sunday he had an attendance of fifty-nine instead of the customary nineteen.

"A year before the fair," he explained simply, "I should not have been invited, or I should have felt in the way if I had gone. But after we had come to know each other, well, I went to their party and they came to mine."

And thus ended the pastor's narrative of a community where spiritual regeneration had grown out of a fair.

One afternoon of the Amherst conference was given over to "Reports of Actual Achievements in Community Organization and Development."

This was a remarkable sort of experience meeting of representatives from twelve tiny towns all the way from Cape Cod to Western Berkshire which had sounded a call to action within the last year or two. A variety of things had served as a nucleus of growing civic consciousness in these villages. Often it was the church which started it; once a good-roads slogan; once a pageant; again, the women of the community awoke to the need of holding the young people together and away from doubtful amusements.

In two towns a few enterprising citizens have achieved "community houses." It was the women in Montague City who put up a $3,500 library hall to be used not only to house the library but for socials and entertainments as well.

They started with only sixty-eight cents in the treasury, but they were rich in pluck and a grim determination to rouse the dormant public spirit of the town.

They began to raise their fund by giving a little entertainment. When the house was half up, the women mortgaged the first half to pay for the rest. And so on through a series of undertakings which would have taxed the courage of an experienced financier, until they achieved their attractively furnished little building which is now a great source of pride and a centre for all the social life of the town.

THE MARCH OF THE CITIES

THE LAKES AND PARKS OF MINNEAPOLIS

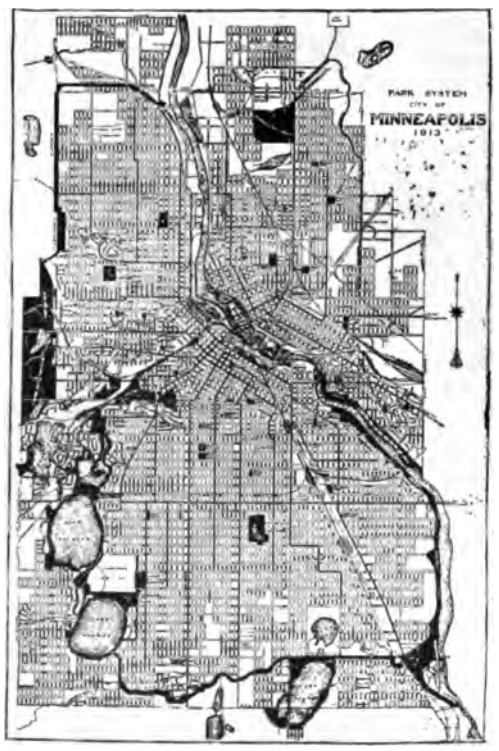
OPEN spaces where the public has a chance to play are a tremendous asset of any city that is encouraging people to come to it to work. Minneapolis has a park system founded on natural conditions. It is perhaps more fortunate in this respect than most other cities, but it is to its credit that adequate advantage has been taken of the natural conditions. A chain of lakes is connected by parkways or boulevards and the utmost use is made of these to provide recreation and amusement to the people of the city.

The lakes give the advantages of water sports and recreations in an inland city. There are the Lakes of the Isles, two hundred acres; Lake Calhoun, fiv and twenty-two acres; Lake Ha than four hundred acres; Lake more than four hundred acres. these lakes have been completely and improved. This year a pe ing beach, with an adequate b has been opened and free swi struction is provided for th The use of the bath house is fre nominal charge being made for bathing suits. A gigantic roof three thousand people projects water, and the park department the finest music available. Bo fishing are allowed on all The city stocks the waters wit its citizens' sport and provides ra boats of individual owners for charge of $4 a year. The reve the boat stands, from the refe from the bathing house pay f labor involved in their ma The population of Minneapolis and there is an acre of park 100 inhabitants.

As in other Western cities system began at the beginni history — in 1857.

But the present large moveme recreations began in 1883. It realization was accomplished o last eight years and the city has open spaces comparatively chea 3,700 acres of Minneapolis cost for land and $2,000,000 for imp Boston, one of the best parke the East, has 2,500 acres, which than $9,000,000 for land S10,000,000 for improvements.

The influence of this construc park movement is seen in the districts of the city. P house has well planted which have even bee scape architect. T garden beauty any other city o



PARKS OF WATER

THE LARGE AND EASILY ACCESSIBLE PARKS OF MINNEAPOLIS (HERE INDICATED IN BLACK) ARE REMARKABLE FOR THEIR MANY BEAUTIFUL LAKES

THE GROWTH OF AMERICAN CITIES

UPPER PICTURE: SOUTH ELEVENTH STREET, TACOMA, WASH., IN 1890. LOWER PICTURE: THE SAME VIEW TO-DAY. THE POPULATION OF TACOMA INCREASED FROM 37,714 IN 1900 TO 83,743 IN 1910, A GROWTH OF 122 PER CENT. IN TEN YEARS

MAN AND HIS MACHINES

RAISING WATER BY GAS EXPLOSIONS

PROBABLY the most interesting mechanical invention placed in actual operation on a large scale during the last year is the remarkable explosion-pump invented by an Englishman. He watched a piston removing water indirectly by the force of gas explosions and wondered why the explosions could not be utilized direct. He saw no reason why the explosions had first to be confined in an internal combustion engine to provide power for the operation of a pump. He devised an apparatus that not only does away with the conventional internal combustion engine, with its piston, fly-wheel, and crank, but also with anything that, through familiar usage, would be recognized as a pump.

His invention consists mainly of a combustion chamber and a play-pipe. Water from an intake rises to a certain height in the combustion chamber, a gas explosion is directed against it, and this water is driven through the play-pipe into a conical tower or stand-pipe. The pipe connecting the combustion chamber with the tower is called a play-pipe rather than just a delivery-pipe, because, after each explosion, the water plays or swings back and forth through it, in somewhat the same manner that a wave, coming from the ocean and striking a breakwater, is thrown back until driven in again by the force of a succeeding wave. But this is more clearly explained by a detailed description of the method of operation.

Air and gas, in the proper mixture, are forced by a small compressor into the space above the water level in the com-

AN ENGLISH CITY'S GASOLINE-PUMPED WATER SUPPLY

THE OUTLET OF AN AUXILIARY WATER-SYSTEM OF LONDON WHICH UTILIZES GASOLINE-EXPLOSIONS IN A NEW WAY. IT IS SIMPLER AND CHEAPER THAN ANY PUMPING MACHINERY HERETOFORE IN USE

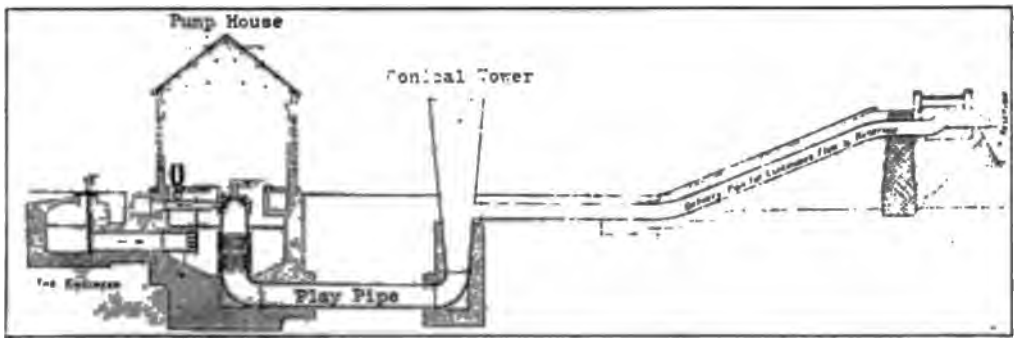
bustion chamber, and then this charge is fired by an electric spark. The force of the explosion drives the water through the play-pipe into the conical tower, from which a delivery-pipe carries part of it into the reservoir or other point of delivery. The water thus driven out of the combustion chamber and along the play-pipe into the tower leaves a partial vacuum in the chamber, and more water enters through the inlet pipes. At the same time air is drawn into the combustion chamber through what are called scavenging valves, and the water left in the conical tower, having come to rest, starts to fall. As much of this water as can so escape passes through the delivery-pipe into the reservoir, and the remainder drives the water in the play-pipe back into the combustion chamber, the pressure so created expelling the products of combustion, now well diluted by the scavenging air, through open exhaust valves. As the water continues to rise in the combustion chamber these valves are sealed by it, and the diluted products of combustion still remaining are compressed until the pressure so attained is sufficient to cause the water to surge back along the play-pipe again. When this occurs the pressure in the combustion chamber again falls below atmospheric pressure, a charge of air and gas is drawn in, and the water, on its next return, swinging through the play-pipe, compresses the charge. This is exploded at the proper moment by the electric spark. In other words the water in the play-pipe goes back and forth twice for every explosion. The process is automatically repeated, the explosions occurring about nine times a minute.

Five of the pumps are now in successful operation, exploding water up from the River Lea into the great new reservoir which supplies London. Four of the pumps discharge 40,000 gallons a minute, and the fifth has a capacity of 20,000 gallons. So economical is the operation that nothing before invented in pumps, driven by steam, electricity, or gasoline, can compete with it. The flow into the reservoir from the delivery-pipe discharging from the conical tower of each unit is continuous and practically uniform.

OUTLETS OF A NEW PUMPING SYSTEM

MOTION-PICTURE FILMS THAT TALK

ALMOST every one has now been made familiar with the Edison "talking" pictures, which have been hailed as a great advance in the motion-picture world. The "talking" pic-



A NEW PUMP THAT "EXPLODES" WATER FROM A WELL
AS THE SYSTEM IS USED TO SUPPLY A NEW RESERVOIR AT A SUBURB OF LONDON

tures, however, as now produced, seem simple enough. The process is a mere combining of two separate machines — the Edison phonograph and the motion-picture projector — in such manner that the pictures and the sounds made by the persons or instruments, machines, and the like, shown in the pictures, and afterward reproduced by phonographic records, are synchronized.

Now a further advance, shown through experiments to be practicable, but still awaiting certain mechanical developments to be made perfect, may soon be announced. This is a motion-picture film that talks, and the electrical experts in New York who are at work on the idea are confident that they will soon make of it a success. The idea consists of combining pictures and a photophonographic record on the one strip of film.

Photophonographic records are not new. They were first produced in 1897 by a German scientist who discovered the "speaking" arc, which is a converter of sound into electric vibrations. The operation of making a sound record by means of an electric arc is as follows: The speaking or singing voice of the person or persons, and the sounds made by the instruments of an orchestra are, for example, caught by a telephone transmitter, the sound is augmented by a special microphone, and this augmented sound, directed into an electric arc, causes variations in the intensity of light of the arc. This light is then concentrated, by means of a cylindrical lens, upon a photographic film, which is passed at a constant velocity in front of it, and makes thereon a record of light variations. The illustration shows the kind of record that results. The alternating light and dark stripes shown upon these films have the appearance of great irregularity, but are in reality exceedingly regular and harmonious, only changing their order with the change of the corresponding sound. Every sound gives its own group of lines and may be easily read from the photophonographic record.

Such a sound-record can be made on one side or half of the face of a motion-picture film, and the pictures themselves fill the *other* side or the other half. The combination film would make possible the reproduction of voices and instrumental music, as well as the scenes of an entire opera.

In reproducing, the combination "talking" and motion-picture film will be run through the motion-picture projecting machine in the usual way, the motion-

"TALKING" FILMS

THAT RECORD SOUNDS BY CATCHING A PHOTOGRAPHIC IMPRESSION OF THE VARIATIONS IN THE VIBRATIONS OF AN ELECTRIC ARC WHICH PULSATES IN HARMONY WITH A MICROPHONE, AND THAT REPRODUCE THESE SOUNDS BY THE EFFECT OF VARIATIONS IN LIGHT THROWN THROUGH THEM UPON A SELENIUM CELL WHICH IS CONNECTED WITH A LOUD-SPEAKING TELEPHONE

picture half of the film being thrown upon the picture screen, and the sound-record side or half of the film projected into a selenium cell connected with a loud-

speaking telephone placed somewhere behind the picture screen. The light projected through the sound-record half of the film by the motion-picture machine varies in strength according to the intensity of the dark stripes or lines on the film. This results in an illumination of the selenium cell corresponding in its variations with the sound waves directed into the arc and thence against the film in the making of the record, and these varying vibrations are converted into sound again through the medium of the selenium cell and the loud-speaking telephone. The "speaking" arc, in other words, is a converter of sound into electric vibrations and light, and the selenium cell and loud-speaking telephone are the means of converting the light back into electric vibrations and thence into the sounds that originally made the electric vibrations. The recording and reproducing of sound in this manner is an interesting process in which sound becomes electricity, and then becomes light, causes chemical actions, then becomes light, then electricity, and finally sound again.

One of the problems that have yet to be completely solved in the combining of pictures and a sound-record on the one film has to do with the fact that sound and light travel at different speeds. But the adjusting of this, according to the experimenters, will not prove particularly difficult to accomplish.

THE "IMPERATOR'S" FIRE PROTECTION

TWENTY-EIGHT metal tubes about two inches in diameter, the mouths or outlets of which are all nested in a glass-fronted box that might be taken for some kind of music box at first glance, form one of the most important aspects of the *Imperator's* fire protection. The hold of the giant ship is divided into twenty-eight compartments. Should a fire start in any one of these divisions the smoke would rise in the tube leading from it and flow out into the box, where it would make its presence known to the man on duty. This attendant would then give the alarm, shove the nozzle of a special steam hose into the tube, and open the valve. The steam, as was demonstrated recently when the *Imperator* took fire, helps to smother the flames.

A SHIP'S FIRE ALARM

PIPES FROM THE VARIOUS COMPARTMENTS OF THE STEAMSHIP "IMPERATOR" THAT DISCLOSE THE PRESENCE OF FIRE BY CARRYING THE SMOKE AS A CHIMNEY CARRIES IT AND THAT CARRY BACK STEAM FROM THE HOSE TO EXTINGUISH THE FLAMES

EASY TRANSPORTATION IN FACTORIES

FACTORY statistics show that the ordinary truckman in a factory who is paid $2 for a day's work spends much more time in the repeated loading and unloading of his trucks than he does in the actual moving of material. A factory transportation system has been worked out which eliminates the waste of labor and time ordinarily required for loading and unloading, and at the same time does away with most of the danger of breakage. In this system all material is piled upon wooden platforms, instead of upon the floor. The rest of the system consists of a transveyor truck. When it is necessary to move material — for example, a roll of paper — from one place to another in the factory, a truck is moved

under the platform. When the handle of the truck is forced downward it raises the platform from the floor. Then the truck is drawn to any part of the factory and the raising of the handle deposits the platform and its load in the new location. Under old methods every truck, while being loaded, is kept from its true function, which is that of transportation, and the constant loading and unloading took many men. With this new system rolls of paper weighing from 3,500 to 4,200 pounds are moved from one place to another by a boy.

In a machine shop, a great saving is effected by the truck's depositing a platform loaded with parts at one side of a machine, a drill press, while at the other side of the machine is placed an empty platform. The workman takes the parts from the loaded platform, puts them through the machine and, at the completion of the operation, places them on the empty platform. There is a superstructure on the platform so that the material is at the operator's waistline and he saves the motion of stooping to the floor to lay down every finished part. It would be possible, of course, to have this arrangement on an ordinary truck, but this would tie up an investment of probably $20 to $30 on trucks, whereas with the wooden platforms the investment tied up is of a value not greater than $1 or $2. Furthermore, the platforms take up less room, because there are no handles in the way.

SAVING THE WASTE OF LOADING

BY PILING GOODS ON A RAISED PLATFORM INSTEAD OF ON THE FLOOR, SO THAT EVEN A BOY CAN LOAD THEM ON A TRUCK BY RUNNING THE TRUCK UNDER THE PLATFORM

In a drug-manufacturing concern the transveyor trucks and the wooden platforms keep the mixing jars off the floor and lessen the danger of breakage after they are filled, which often happened when they had to be lifted on to and off of the ordinary trucks.

PLATFORMS CHEAPER THAN TRUCKS

CONVEYING MACHINE PARTS ABOUT A FACTORY ON REMOVABLE PLATFORMS WITHOUT TYING UP THE COMPARATIVELY COSTLY TRUCKS DURING THE USUAL TIME OF LOADING AND UNLOADING

"Answers to Questions About Farm Lands" will hereafter appear in the advertising section

May, 1913

$3.00 A Year
25 Cents

THE WORLD'S WORK

Let There Be Light

By

Woodrow Wilson

DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & COMPANY, GARDEN CITY, L. I.

The Victor system of changeable needles gives you complete musical control

Full tone

Victrola Needle
30 cents for 200

Medium tone

Victor Needle
5 cents per 100
50 cents per 1000

Soft tone

Victor Half-Tone Needle
5 cents per 100
50 cents per 1000

Subdued tone

Victor Fibre Needle
50 cents per 100
(can be repointed
and used eight times)

The Victor system of changeable needles a
the different selections to the requirements of diffe
rooms, and to meet the tastes of different peop
enables *you* to hear every record just as you wan
hear it.

"But", you say, "when Caruso sings or Mis
Elman plays doesn't the Victor record it exactl
the artist sings or plays it?"

Absolutely true to life—but there is this impor
difference:

The Victor record is the artist just as you w
hear him if you stood beside him on the stage,
what you want is to hear him as you would if sea
the audience—and the system of changeable n
enables you to sit in the first row or the last r
any place between, and to change your seat fo
individual selection to hear it to the best advan

The Victor system of changeable needles a
tone-modifying doors of the Victrola give you
control over the music, and enable you to br
the full beauties of each individual record.

The **Victrola Needle** produces the full tone as
inally sung or played—particularly suited for l
rooms and halls, and for dancing.

The **Victor Needle** brings out a volume of tone a
equal to what you would hear in the first few ro
an opera house or theatre.

The **Victor Half-tone Needle** reduces the volu
tone and gives you the effect of sitting in the m
of an opera house or theatre.

The **Victor Fibre Needle** produces a rich, sub
tone that takes you still further back—a tone tha
delight the discriminating music-lover.

The principle of the changeable needle is the only correct one to insure perfect results, and the reproducing qualities of Victor Needles are absolutely right.

Any Victor dealer will gladly play any music you wish to hear and demonstrate the value of the changeable needle.

Victor Talking Machine Co., Camden, N. J., U.S.A.
Berliner Gramophone Co., Montreal, Canadian Distributors.

New Victor Records are on sale at all dealers on the 28th of each month

TIFFANY & Co.

JEWELERS
SILVERSMITHS
STATIONERS

TIFFANY & Co.'S MAIL ORDER DEPARTMENT IS EVER AVAILABLE TO OUT-OF-TOWN CORRESPONDENTS

FIFTH AVENUE & 37TH STREET
NEW YORK

If burning embers fell on *your* roof from an adjoining fire, would you be alarmed for the safety of your building?

Statistics show that thousands of buildings are needlessly burned every year—because they are roofed with inflammable materials, easily ignited by sparks and brands. Safeguard your buildings against this dreaded fire hazard by covering them with

J-M Asbestos Roofing

This is the only ready roofing that affords perfect fire protection. It has withstood the flame of a powerful blow-torch for almost an hour without a sign of burning. The wonderful fire-resisting quality of J-M Asbestos Roofing is due to its *all-mineral* construction—layers of Asbestos felt (fire-proof rock), cemented together with Trinidad Lake Asphalt, Nature's time-defying water-proofing.

The absence of perishable animal and vegetable substances also means that J-M Asbestos Roofing contains nothing to rot, melt, dry out, crack or rust. Hence, it *never needs coating or protection of any form. Its first cost is the last cost.* It is the cheapest per year roofing on the market.

Adapted to any type of building—in any climate. Easily applied. J-M Roofing Cleats, packed in each roll, make absolutely watertight seams and give the entire roof a handsome white appearance.

Order from our nearest branch if your hardware or lumber dealer can't supply you.

Write our nearest Branch today for a sample of the curious Asbestos Rock that forms the base of this roofing and Book No. 2868.

H. W. JOHNS-MANVILLE CO.

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11 West 32nd St., New York

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AN ideal acting edition for amateurs embodying the experience of one of the greatest Shakespearean producers. Full directions for costuming, staging, business, etc.

VOLUMES NOW READY

Midsummer Night's Dream, The Tempest, As You Like It, The Merchant of Venice, A Comedy of Errors, Julius Caesar.

Frontispiece in colors and many black and white drawings. Each volume, cloth, net 60 cents. Flexible leather, net 90 cents.

Doubleday, Page & Co., Garden City New York

Interstate Insurance Solved by Postal Life

INSURANCE PROTECTION
POSTAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY
HEALTH CONSERVATION

Receives business from every State—*direct*

THERE are 252 legal reserve life-insurance companies in the country, all operating through agents, yet only 33 of these companies do business in the State of New York.

Similarly, of the largest four New York companies—"the giants," so-called—**not one does business in Texas; two of them do not enter Wisconsin, and the fourth does no business in ten States.**

The States will not let agents solicit business unless their companies take out licenses, pay so-called "occupation" taxes, and submit to other State exactions, which some companies can not, or *will* not, do.

The Postal Life, a New York company, complying with all the strict requirements of that State, is the only insurance institution that receives business from *every State in the Union*, thus enabling everyone to arrange insurance *direct*.

The POSTAL is, in quite a true sense, an interstate institution and it can transact an interstate business, because it is a non-agency company; it employs no agents and does not send them into the various States.

It is therefore exempt from the various expensive requirements applicable to companies employing agents and agencies. *Postal policyholders get the benefit.*

Pays claims in every State—*promptly*

THE one who wants insurance in the Postal Life *writes*, as a citizen of the United States, *direct* to the Company's New York headquarters, shown above—*its only place of business*. The Postal answers by mail and it is thus subject to the United States Postal authorities—also to the Federal Courts.

Uncle Sam brings letters from applicants, wherever they live, and takes the Company's answers wherever they are directed.

Insurance policies thus arranged for, are valid and binding wherever policyholders may reside and policy-claims are paid by check mailed *direct* to the beneficiary—and *promptly*.

STRONG POSTAL POINTS

First: *Old-line legal-reserve insurance*—not fraternal or assessment.

Second: *Standard policy reserves*, now $10,000,000. *Insurance in force*, $50,000,000.

Third: *Standard policy provisions*, approved by the State Insurance Department.

Fourth: Operates under *strict State requirements* and subject to the United States postal authorities.

Fifth: *High medical standards* in the selection of risks.

Sixth: *Policyholders' Health Bureau* provides one free medical examination each year, if desired.

See How Easy It Is

In writing simply say: *Mail me insurance particulars for my age as per May WORLD'S WORK.*

In your letter be sure to give:

1. Your Full Name. 2. Your Occupation. 3. The Exact Date of your Birth.

No agent will be sent to visit you: the Postal Life dispenses with agents and gives its policyholders the benefit of their commissions.

Postal Life Insurance Company

Wm. R. Malone, President

35 Nassau Street, New York

Net Cost Low in the **POSTAL** because

1st. Commission Dividends corresponding to agent's commissions, less the moderate advertising charge, go to Postal Policyholders the first year.

2d. Renewal-Commission Dividends and **Office expense Savings**, covered by the

9½%

guaranteed dividends, go to Policyholders in **subsequent years.**

3d. Contingent Policy dividends, based on the company's earnings, still further reduce the cost each year after the first.

"There Must Be Something In It"

THE Encyclopædia Britannica is the name of a Work first published in Edinburgh (1768–71) in three modest volumes, and of which an 11th —completely new—edition has now been issued. During this long period of almost 150 years, there have been in England, the United States, France, Germany, Norway, Spain and Russia about twenty other attempts to make the same kind of a book—that is, a book dealing with all human knowledge in the broadest outlines,—but of them all, only a few attained to a second edition.

Why has the Encyclopædia Britannica maintained its unequalled position during this period, becoming with each of its successive editions more comprehensive and more authoritative, always increasing its fame, its sale and its usefulness?

There must be some reason for this, and it may be attributed to the fact that the original idea of the projectors of the first edition, "A Society of Gentlemen in Scotland," was that this encyclopædia was to be a book in which the knowledge of the world should be **written by experts** out of their own experience and not by ordinary "hack" writers. In the carrying out of this idea, the Encyclopædia Britannica has in each of its editions been written by authorities, by those who were known to be identified with the world's progress. They were, in fact, the creative minds of the day. In their hands, the contents of the book gave not only a survey of general knowledge, but gave also an estimate and appraisal of knowledge that was to come—**a foresight of the future as well as an insight into the past.**

Other encyclopædias were made from time to time, a large part of the information in which had already appeared in earlier works. The contributors merely recast that knowledge and put it into somewhat different form, but without giving credit. Works produced on such a plan, involving a small investment, and with expenses cut in every direction, were much more cheaply made, and while they were sold for less in the aggregate, they were, relatively, **actually higher in price** than the Encyclopædia Britannica; they necessarily lacked the note of the highest scholarship, and the thorough-going treatment which the public have always associated with the Encyclopædia Britannica, and which it is only right that a subscriber shall expect to find in a work purporting to be for authoritative reference and systematic reading. It is not strange, therefore, that these encyclopædias have not been continued. There was, in fact, no real excuse for their continued existence.

Again, the Encyclopædia Britannica has always been not only the largest, most comprehensive, most authoritative of all works of universal reference, but the public have invariably paid more for it than for any other work.

There must be a good reason for this, too. Other encyclopædias issued within the last forty years have been sold at from $90 to $125 a set. The last completely new edition of the Britannica, the 9th, published in 1875–89 in 25 volumes, was sold at that time at $150 to $200. Its success was instantaneous, and in the United States more copies of it were sold, ultimately, than even in the country of its origin. The cheaper encyclopædias contain from 40 to 60 per cent. less matter than the Encyclopædia Britannica, yet the sale of the Britannica, a much larger book in bulk of contents, at a higher price, has always exceeded the sale of the smaller works issued at a lower price. One would say, offhand, that the sale of the cheaper encyclopædias would exceed the sale of the higher-priced work, but the contrary has proved to be the fact. Why is this?

If it were possible to ascertain the collective opinion of the majority of the purchasers of this celebrated work during its successive editions, the consensus would undoubtedly be that the reason it has lived, the reason it has enjoyed such a continuity of influence, the reason the public have paid more for it, is the fact that of all works of its kind it is the one whose contents bear the impress of the highest scholarship, and the most expert, practical experience. Its **authority**, in a word, is accepted without question because it is the work of **authorities.** It is the **best** book of its kind, and people have paid more for it because it was the best, and **was worth the money.** The name of the work has come to have a certain fixed significance as a synonym of authority, finality, truth.

Again, more sets of the Encyclopædia Britannica have been sold since it was

Printed upon ordinary book paper, such as was used for previous editions, the new Encyclopædia Britannica occupies a width of over 7 feet.

Printed upon India paper, the 29 volumes, shown in the front of this photograph, occupy a width of only 29 inches, and weigh less than 80 lbs.

first issued 145 years ago than have been sold of all other encyclopædias, in all languages, including English, put together.

That is an extraordinary fact, but there must be some good reason for this, too. The public in each successive generation would not have bought the book so consistently if they had not felt that it was worth buying. It would not have been possible to "fool the public" about it all the time during this long period. The Encyclopædia Britannica may, therefore, be said to be a thing of life which has lived because it deserved to live, and it has deserved to live because those who bought it knew that it occupied a position not approached by any other book.

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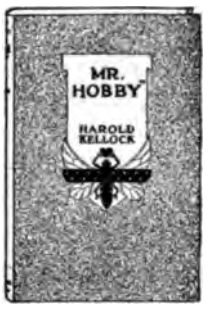

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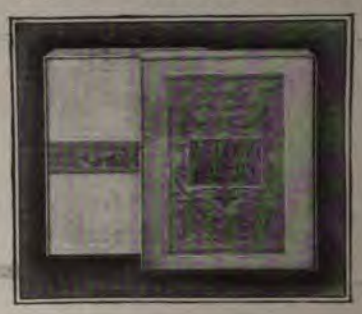

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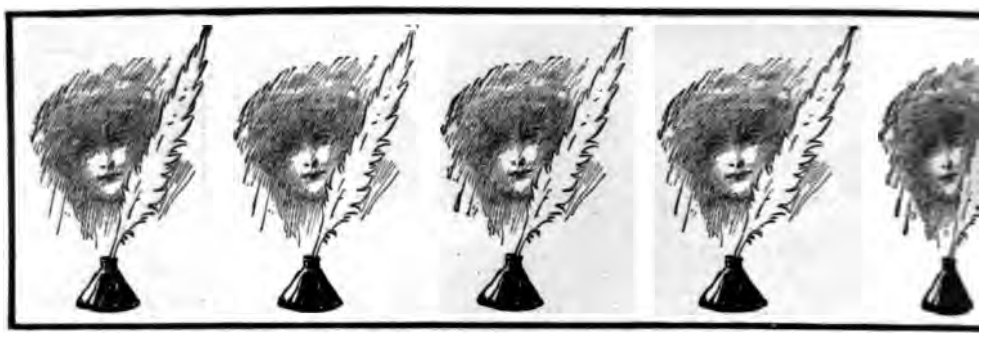

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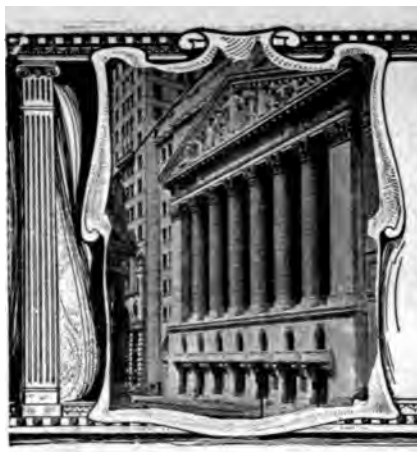

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This is a department in which we publish announcements of bankers. We investigate those who wish to use our pages, and the advertisements are supervised before acceptance. We make every effort to accept only the offerings of safe securities and the announcements of responsible and reliable banking firms.

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INSURANCE

445.— OHIO INVESTOR. *Q.* I have some money in two building and loan associations and have noted with some concern that you say investment in companies like these has not proved satisfactory. Please tell me why.

A. You have misinterpreted our former remarks to some extent. The fault, however, may perhaps have been with us in not making it sufficiently clear that a very sharp line distinction ought to be drawn between the two general classes of building and loan associations. There are those which operate as coöperative local or neighborhood associations, and those which operate as national associations. It will be perfectly obvious to you, we think, that an association of the local type, whose affairs are managed under the direction of capable business men who are interested financially and take pride in their own communities, and who also go to the pains of investigating personally the standing of those who go to their association for loans, as well as the character of the property offered as security, would naturally be a far safer proposition than one whose affairs were managed by men interested primarily in what profits they could take out of the business and who could not by reason of the wide territory covered by their operations, devote personal attention to seeing that all of the loans were sound. It was to these so-called "national" building and loan associations that we referred when we stated that their investment record had not been a satisfactory one.

446.— LAWYER. *Q.* I wish to invest about $10,000 in bonds or short-term notes with the intention of selling as soon as there is a big decline in the stock-market. Then, I intend to buy standard railroad stocks. Which do you think it would be advisable to buy, bonds or notes?

A. There is no doubt that short-term notes are the best media for temporary investment of the funds which you intend to use later on in the purchase of standard dividend paying railroad stocks. As a class notes are less subject to transient influences which some times affect the prices of bonds adversely, and in addition to that, there is seldom a time under any kind of general market conditions when it is not possible to find a ready market for them. If you were to make your selections from the list of what we might call the "standard" issues of notes, you would probably want to take the shorter maturities, probably those not to exceed one year. In that class you would find issues like the following:

Boston & Maine 5's, due February 3d, 1914, to yield about 4.85 per cent.

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Illinois Central 4½'s, due July 1st, 1914, to yield 4.74 per cent.

N. Y. Central 4½'s, due March 1st, 1914, to yield about 4.85 per cent.

447.— WESTERN. *Q.* I have heard and read a great deal lately about tax free or tax exempt securities and kindred matters. I understand that municipal states securities are not subject to taxation, but they may be registered for a nominal sum and are exempt from any further charges. My impression is that such exemption only applies in the state issuing or else in the state in which the owner of such securities resides. Is this correct? Where Colorado securities are offered, it is often stated that they are preferable to those issued in other states (all other conditions to be equal) because the former are not subject to diminution by taxation. Would residents in other states share in this advantage.

A. The laws applicable in the taxation of securities are those of the state in which the investor has his legal residence. Your understanding about the possibility of exempting securities by the payment of a nominal tax once and for all time, is, we believe, true of but one state, namely, New York. This law is a relatively new one, having been put on the statute books only a little more than a year ago. It provides for the payment of a tax of one half of one per cent on the par value of the securities, and covers not only bonds that are issued by New York corporations but those issued by companies incorporated elsewhere. As for the other states, there is a wide variation of laws on the subject of taxation of securities. In a number of states the only securities that are exempt are the stocks of domestic corporations, that is, corporations which are incorporated under the laws of that particular state, and own property within the state upon which taxes are, of course, paid in the usual way. Some states, in addition to stocks of domestic corporations exempt their own bonds and those issued by their own municipalities, but tax all other securities except Government bonds which are specifically exempt. In Colorado, the stocks of public service, insurance, manufacturing, and other business corporations incorporated within the state are exempt. The stocks of corporations other than Colorado corporations are taxable in practice although there seems to be some question about the legality of this. Colorado State bonds, Colorado municipal bonds, the state and municipal bonds of other states and foreign countries are taxable. All corporation bonds are taxable except those secured by real estate.

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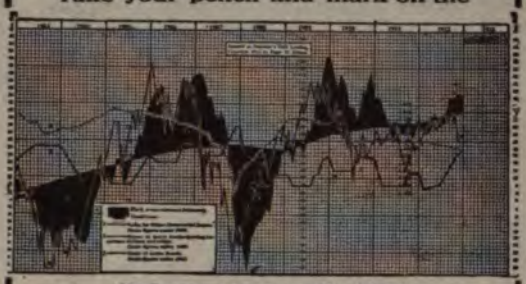

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WHAT provision are you making for yourself and your family? Insurance in the event of death, perhaps, but what in the event of *life?* The boy—will he finish college? The girls—are they protected? Will you be able to enjoy old age? These are the vital questions we would help you answer.

A-R-E 6% Bonds will aid you to systematically accumulate your savings and to assure them a just interest return. You can lay aside any amount from $25 a year upward; interest earning starts at once.

Our plan of savings accumulation and investment has been tested by 25 years of successful experience, and has served thousands of investors. Bonds based upon the ownership of New York real estate are offered in these forms:

6% Coupon Bonds
In multiples of $100

6% Accumulative Bonds
Purchasable by installments

Full details, including map of New York City and pamphlet "An Independent Future," on application.

American Real Estate Company

Founded 1888 **Assets $27,202,824.19**
Capital and Surplus $2,188,805.50
527 Fifth Avenue Room 513 New York

TIMBER
Netting 6%

lar Has Been the Days of k the Great

Mortgage Banks were organized about 140 years ago.
Mortgage Bank Bonds has ever lost a dollar.
nk in America to adopt the methods of the great Euro-
anks and offer to the public

rtgage Bank Bonds

ation first mortgages on Illinois farms and homes (exclusively).
mortgage is one on which the borrower pays a small amount each six
by the time the mortgage is due, the whole debt is cleared. The security
rtgage constantly increases, for the mortgage is binding until the fina.

issued for more than half the appraised value of the property.
secured by the *entire capital* and *surplus* of the Woodruff
ny.
curing the bonds held in trust by *First Trust and Savings*
Chicago, Trustee.
Denominations of bonds $100, $500 and $1,000
Interest 5%—payable semi-annually.

Legal for National Bank Investment (7)
"The Bond of Prosperity."
Write for facts contained in our booklet entitled, "*My Country.*"

The Woodruff Trust
Operated Under the Supervision

We own and offer subject to prior sale the unsold balance of the seven per cent. cumulative preferred stock
of
HART & CROUSE CO.
Utica, N. Y.
Manufacturers of the Well-Known
Royal Heaters
Their Records Show
Average Dividends past 20 years 12%.
Earnings nearly four times dividend
required for preferred stock.
We recommend this stock as a desirable investment
Circular No. 115 on application

ayne, Ring & Company
BANKERS
National City Bank Building
55 WALL STREET, NEW YORK CITY
Philadelphia
Boston

BONDS

BONDS SECURING POSTAL SAVINGS FUNDS
BONDS YIELDING 4%-5% PAYABLE SEMI-YEAR
BACKED BY CERTIFICATES FROM UNITED STATES TREASU
CERTIFYING THEY PROTECT POSTAL SAVINGS BANK FUN
AVAIL YOURSELF OF THIS PROTECTION
SEND FOR OUR BOOKLET "BONDS OF OUR COUNTR
BONDS SENT TO ANY BANK OR EXPRESS
COMPANY SUBJECT TO EXAMINATION
THE NEW FIRST NATIONAL BANK COLUMBUS.O

For the Assistance of Investors

We have prepared a pamphlet entitled "The Selection of Investments" which contains information and definite suggestions which experience has shown us are of value to those with funds to invest. We will be glad to send to those interested a copy of this pamphlet on application at one of our offices.

A. B. Leach & Co.

Investment Securities

149 Broadway, New York

Chicago Philadelphia Buffalo
Boston London, Eng. Baltimore

Over Forty Years

We have made loans on hi class Georgia farms. All loa secured by farms worth fr two to four times the value the mortgage.

Six Per Cen

Paid annually on all loans. Absol safety and protection on the prin pal.

Our many years' experience and vestigation of farms in Geor should appeal to all conservative vestors who desire large returns w absolute safety.

We take care of all details in connection taxes, insurance, collections, etc. Our re and standing in this community is u passed. Write us today for booklet further information.

Established 1870

The Southern Mortgage
Atlanta, Ga.

6 AND 7% First Mortgage

On Georgia City or Farm Property. You take no chances on mortgages purchased from us as we have investigated and studied property in this State for many years, and our appraisals are very conservative. We protect your principal with ample security, and the interest is paid regularly.

Let us send you our list of loans and some interesting and reliable literature. We believe that we can convince you of the desirability of our offerings as safe and profitable investments.

Sessions Loan and Trust Company
Dept. B MARIETTA, GA.

$100 BOND

4% to 6% While You Sa

THAT is if you buy sound and well bonds by our **Small Payment Plan.** down and the rest as you wish, and wish. We allow interest computed compounded quarterly, at the rate the The bonds are high class R. R., Industri Utility Bonds, and many are listed on th Exchange. You can sell at any time. buy **$500** and **$1000** bonds by this plan you wish. Write for list W-85.

BEYER & COMPA
The Hundred Dollar Bon
52 William St. N

Ask the Readers' Service about your investments

Diversify your investments as to

LOCALITY

Not only can your bond holdings be properly diversified as to the class of securities but also by a diversification of locality — thus limiting the effect of conditions which are purely local.

We offer at prices to yield 5½% to 5¾% carefully selected public utility bonds of well established companies operating in all sections of the country.

Ask for circular W.139

P. W. Brooks & Co.

115 Broadway, New York

Philadelphia **Boston**

Timber Land Bonds

Timber Land is the only great natural resource, except farm land, the supply of which is known. Timber is all above ground, and timber appraisals are scientific and accurate.
Timber Land, well located, is improved real estate. Improved because it has already produced its crop. Further improved by mills, railroads and machinery for converting the crop into dollars.

Good timber bonds find ready sale among banks and lumbermen who know that they will be paid when due, not refunded. Timber Bonds yield

Six Per Cent Income

Send for Booklet "W" describing Timber Bonds for the Conservative Investor.

George H. Burr & Co.

Bankers

14 Wall Street, New York — **Rookery Bldg., Chicago**

Boston **Philadelphia** **St. Louis** **San Francisco**

Conservative Investors

are more concerned with stability in price, safety of principal, and prompt payment of income of investments than the chance of speculative profit with its consequent greater chance of loss.

Municipal Bonds

are now, always have been, and always will be the ideal securities for conservative investors. Business conditions, political attacks, and foreign complications do not affect their intrinsic value.

If *you* want investments of this character, please consider the following:

BONDS OF LARGER CITIES
Yielding 4% to 4.55%

New York City	3½%	due 1954
Grand Rapids, Michigan	4 %	due 1931
Minneapolis, Minnesota	4 %	due 1942
Baltimore, Maryland	4 %	due 1961
Houston, Texas	4¼%	due 1920-52

BONDS OF SMALLER COMMUNITIES
Yielding 4.25% to 5%

Mount Vernon, New York	4½%	due 1952
Barry County, Missouri	5 %	due 1922
Webster Groves, Missouri	4½%	due 1932
St. Clair Co., Ill., Sch. Dist.	5 %	due 1918-28
Bellingham, Washington	5 %	due 1926
Austin, Texas	5 %	due 1930-52
Fairmont, West Virginia	5 %	due 1942
Fort Smith, Arkansas	5 %	due 1923

BONDS OF DRAINAGE AND ROAD DISTRICTS
Yielding 5% to 5½%

Calhoun Co., Texas, Road	5 %	due 1952
Chickasaw Co., Miss., Road	5 %	due 1925-37
Cameron Co., Texas, Drainage	5 %	due 1929-38
Pemiscot Co., Mo., Drainage	6 %	due 1930-32
Woodruff Co., Ark., Road	6 %	due 1923-33
Mississippi Co., Ark., Drainage	6 %	due 1927-32

The above issues are owned by this company and recommended as being safe, free from marked changes in price, and desirable in every way.

Send for circulars and place your name on our mailing list. Address nearest office, Department A.

WILLIAM R. COMPTON COMPANY

NEW YORK Pine & William — **ST. LOUIS** 408 Olive Street — **CHICAGO** 111 West Monroe St.

Farm Mortgages

Yielding 6% and 6½% net

A FARM MORTGAGE is a safe investment. The security cannot be destroyed and is not affected by panics, strikes, or depressions.

THE FARM MORTGAGES that we sell are secure beyond any possibility of loss and will return you 6% and 6½% per annum net.

ALL TITLES GUARANTEED BY US, and we will collect and remit your interest in New York Exchange without charge.

We invite correspondence and will be pleased to submit mortgage lists and pamphlet explaining in detail our service to investors. Bank references upon request.

THE DEVEREAUX MORTGAGE COMPANY

1009 Spalding Building — Portland, Oregon

Stocks and Bonds
OR
Real Estate?

The growing tendency of our legislative bodies to increase the burdens of real estate ownership by numerous laws is making ownership of real estate unprofitable. Many persons with surplus capital who have preferred real estate are now naturally turning to stocks and bonds of high quality.

First class stocks and bonds always find a ready market—the cost of making sales is small, there are no lawyers' fees or large fees for recording transfers.

Real Estate finds slow sale as a rule—commission costs are great—lawyers' fees, title insurance and fees for recording lengthy documents eat up profits.

Write us for advice in the matter of investing your savings in safe and profitable securities.

CHISHOLM & CHAPMAN

Members New York Stock Exchange

73 BROADWAY NEW YORK

Let your money mak
6 per cent—Net

The three or four per cent the savings bank
not fairly represent your money's earning ab
is simply the small end of the profits. The b
the big share as its fee for re-investment—*
your money in mortgages — something you
do for yourself. By investing direct you
least double the profits of your savings as
accrue to you. Oklahoma first mortgag
secured by two to four times the amoun
loan—make this possible—the same kind
and insurance companies buy.

Why Insurance Compani
Buy Oklahoma Mortga

Experience showed them that in order to meet cos
must secure as high a rate per dollar as sound
ment allowed. Investigation proved that Oklah
choice field for investments of this kind. A
$415,000,000.00 is now invested by the insuranc
in farm mortgages—and a good share of this
mortgages. Surely you can't do better than follow
of these trained buyers of conservative investment
now to give your money a chance to make goo

Write now for interesting Booklets describing ou
sive investment service and Mortgage List

OKLAHOMA FARM MORTGAGE
Oklahoma City, U. S. A.

The Audit Company of Illinois

Harris Trust Bldg., Chicago

Specialists in auditing and Systematizing Public Service Corporations

C. W. KNISELY, C. P. A.
President-Manager

REFERENCES:
Leading Bond Houses dealing in Gas, Electric, and Railway Securities

6% BON

Farmers' Irrigation
Scottsbluff, Nebras

ISSUE $2,763,000. DENOMINATIONS,
Mature 1924 to 193

Interest Payable Semi-Annually, at Office of C
Goring, Nebraska

These bonds were voted by a district co
65,000 acres of the finest agricultural land
Platte Valley. The irrigation system is in
has been for several years. It is a mutua
people of the district taking over the plant
State Land Company, which constructed it
ago.

Principal and interest are levied and coll
bonds just as other taxes are levied and c
district is organized under the laws of the
being elected by the farmers occupying the
ing the taxes.

Among the Best

These bonds are considered by all who ha
among the best of the kind, because they are
farms. It is not a new or untried pro
water supply is assured through the Pathfin
built and operated by the United States Go

Will be pleased to send book of full part

Payne Investment C
Capital and S
Oma

Ask the Readers' Service about your investments

INVESTMENTS

Security 5% Control Income

Approved by 315 Banks.
Never fluctuates in value.
Three-fold security—$1,000,000 guarantee.
Maturity at Investor's option.

These are reasons why the conservative invest money in

5% M. C. Collateral Trust Certificates

These collateral Trust Certificates are now issued in $100 units to accommodate the small investor. They are secured by one of the safest and most liquid forms of banking collateral, deposited with one of the strongest trust companies in Manhattan. If you are interested in an investment which combines absolute control, threefold security and 5% income,

WRITE for Booklet and our Free Magazine "Working Dollars".

Manufacturers' Commercial Company
301 Broadway New York City

The United States Government Accepts

for Postal Savings Deposits such securities as we offer you.

In addition to Government and State Bonds, they are the only form of securities accepted by the Government as surety for Postal Savings Bank deposits placed with banks. No securities could be given a better endorsement. And our choice selection of

MUNICIPAL, COUNTY AND SCHOOL BONDS
secured by taxing power

are worthy of this endorsement, combining, as they do, utmost security with good interest return and minimum risk. All the taxing power of the community issuing them stands behind these securities.

Our present offerings include bonds from various states, yielding from 4½% to 5½%. These bonds embody the judgment and experience of our organization of 27 years' training in the selection of this particular class of conservative investment.

Banks and Insurance Companies last year purchased 80% of our securities.

Offerings mailed on request for circular No. 526W.

H. C. SPEER & SONS Co.
(Established 1885)
Investment Bankers
First National Bank Building, CHICAGO

A Non-speculative Investment

Yielding a known income every January 1st and July 1st. Safe, conservative, non-fluctuating—adapted for investing either *savings* or *surplus*.

6% Gold Mortgage Bonds

Denominations: $100, $500, $1000

Protected by Trust Mortgage
Interest Payable Semi-Annually

¶ Thoroughly secured by the actual ownership of millions of dollars' worth of high-class, improved, income-producing *city* property, located on Manhattan Island, New York City, the most valuable and *most productive area of its size in the world.* ¶ Write for illustrated booklet 73.

NEW YORK REAL ESTATE SECURITY CO.
Assets over $14,000,000 Capital Stock $3,950,000
42 Broadway New York

50 WORDS ABOUT ODD LOTS
No. 33

THERE are many so called securities which are easy enough to buy but difficult or impossible to sell.

The securities listed on the New York Stock Exchange, however, are as easily sold as bought.

And Odd Lots of these securities are as easily bought and sold as 100 share lots.

Send for Booklet 17 A—"Odd Lot Investment"

John Muir & Co.
SPECIALISTS IN
Odd Lots of Stock
Members New York Stock Exchange
MAIN OFFICE—74 BROADWAY
Uptown Office—42d St. and Broadway
NEW YORK

Prompt replies to financial inquiries from The Readers' Service

D. Arthur Bowman & Co.
INVESTMENT BANKERS

650 THIRD NATIONAL BANK BUILDING
ST. LOUIS, MO.

Buy SAFETY With Income

When the Public Service Commission of a leading State has appraised your property at MORE THAN TWICE the actual bonded debt, you are lending YOUR money safely.

You can rarely obtain 6% on securities of this type, for they are rapidly gaining wide popularity.

Interest requirements on a bond meeting these requirements have been earned more than 2¼ times over, according to the most recent statements.

And the sinking fund is stringent, liberal and exact.

Ask for our interesting new circular on this sound 6% investment bond.

Trustees For The Investor

BUY DIRECT 6% FARM MORTGAGES

A barn on one of the modern Dakota farms on which we have a mortgage. Our cashier at Minot, N. D., made the loan and knows the farmer's record and bank balance.

THE cashiers of our 12 banks in the Dakotas loan our money only to the farmers whose habits and deposits they come personally in contact with. This is the class of perfect security we offer to you.

Our method is said to be the most direct method known. We keep ourselves, (and we keep you), in constant personal touch.

Twenty-seven years experience without a single loss. Write today for latest list and booklet describing our method.

NORTHERN INVESTORS CO., Ltd.

Paid in Capital, $300,000

200 Fourth Street So., Minneapolis, Minn.

THE SAFETY of our first mortgages, secured by the best class of improved city property, equals that of high grade bonds.

Net Investors

6½% and 7% Without Risk

All mortgages offered by us have been made with our own funds, been passed upon by experienced investment bankers, are sound and conservative, and suitable for purchase by individual investors, trustees and executors of estates and financial institutions which can use only the highest grade securities.

We collect and remit interest and principal and look after the property during the life of the mortgage, all without charge to the investor.

Write for list and particulars.

Title Trust Co

SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

AFFILIATED WITH NATIONAL CITY BANK OF SEATTLE
SECOND AVENUE AT COLUMBIA STREET

6% CHICAGO IMPROVED REAL ESTATE MORTGAGES 5½%

WISE INVESTMENTS

Combine to the utmost—greatest security not affected by industrial depression or financial stagnation—greatest income consistent with safety—greatest stable permanence. These with convertibility are all features of our Chicago Improved Real Estate Bonds and Mortgages. Titles guaranteed by Chicago Title & Trust Company.

Custodians of Trust funds make these securities their heaviest investments.

Chicago's unquestioned stability and our long experience make our offerings of First Real Estate Gold Mortgages (in large and small amounts) and First Real Estate Serial Gold Bonds (denominations $100, $500 and $1,000) —drawing 5½ and 6 per cent—the best.

During our nineteen years of continuous business not $1 of principal or interest has been lost in an investment through us.

It is and always has been our custom to repurchase securities from our clients at par and accrued interest, less a handling charge of 1 per cent. Send for list 195 W.

G. H. CONEY & CO.
MORTGAGE BANKERS
105 S. LASALLE ST.
CHICAGO

What you wish to know about any bond from the Readers' Service

Seven Per Cent

And the principal guaranteed

Let us place for you now a first mortgage on choice improved real estate in prosperous Pensacola, Fla.

Interest payable quarterly, complete protection — remember, only on improved city property.

7%

Investigate record of our Mortgage Department for the past thirty years. You will find that we have placed more than $14,000,000 in these loans without a single loss to an investor.

Write us for complete information and booklet. Address Dept. M.

The Fisher Real Estate Agency
Pensacola, Florida

Here is an ideal investment for savings or idle funds—

Six Per Cent Certificates

Payable on demand at any time after two years.

And amply safeguarded by first mortgages on improved real estate, deposited with one of the strong trust companies of Baltimore.

These certificates are issued in even multiples of $100.

Interest checks are mailed regularly every six months.

In over 18 years there has never been a day's delay in the mailing of these interest checks or in repayment of principal.

Write for the Six Per Cent book—it is interesting

The Calvert Mortgage Company
1068 Calvert Bldg. Baltimore, Md.

The World's Work gives information concerning investments.

PORTLAND OREGON

6% Carefully selected mortgages in and around the thriving city of Portland. Special inducement to the small investor **6% Partial Payment Receipts** containing withdrawal privilege, to apply on purchase of loans. *Write for Booklet and Mortgage Lists.* **7%**

Western Bond and Mortgage Co.
Commercial Club Bldg. Portland, Ore.

FARM MORTGAGES

First liens on improved farms. Original papers held by the investor. Principal and interest Guaranteed. Interest payable at Hanover National Bank, N. Y. Thousands of satisfied customers for references. **Bearing 6% Interest**

We've been doing the same thing for TWENTY-EIGHT YEARS
Write for particulars

The W. C. BELCHER LAND MORTGAGE CO., Fort Worth, Texas
Capital and Surplus $520,000.00

Farm Mortgages 6%

OUR INVESTMENTS
Appeal to Conservative Investors
Send for descriptive pamphlet "U" and list of offerings 30 years' experience. Highest references furnished.

E. J. Lander & Co. Grand Forks, N. D.

Information on Investments

If you desire information on securities or investments of any kind we will be pleased to furnish you free of charge with any facts and figures at our command.

For the safe and profitable investment of surplus funds we recommend high grade Bonds in denominations of $100 and upwards, drawing rates of interest as high as 6%.

Write today for our booklet "Bonds and How to Buy Them."

OTIS & CO.

INVESTMENT BANKERS
300 CUYAHOGA BLDG.
CLEVELAND, OHIO

FARM MORTGAGES

are the safest and best investments when judiciously made. We offer First Mortgages on the richest producing farms in the world — the Illinois "Corn Belt."
The underlying security is readily salable for more than three times the amount loaned. We have specialized in them for more than 55 years. Never a cent lost to investors.
Write for List No. 225.

A. G. Danforth & Co., Bankers
FOUNDED A. D. 1858 **Washington, Illinois**

SEATTLE 7% MORTGAGES

All loans of our own selection on improved city property, conservatively appraised. Absolute safety with an interest rate hard to obtain anywhere with equal security. We attend to all details, collecting and forwarding interest semi-annually.
Send for our booklet "A" and list of loans
JOSEPH E. THOMAS & CO., Inc., 109 Cherry St., SEATTLE, Wash.

6 ½% Net First Mortgages

on improved OKLAHOMA FARMS from $200 up are safe investments. I have sold them for years to ultra conservative investors with entire satisfaction. Write today for list and interesting BOOKLET "W." Refer to Dun or Bradstreet.

GEO. R. FISH, Investment Banker, Ardmore, Okla.

Investments in Oregon Timber

We have a few attractive opportunities for small investors to obtain Oregon timber lands at $1.00 per thousand feet stumpage. All lands are accessibly located and heavily timbered. Explanation of our methods for safeguarding the interests of absentee owners, and other interesting details upon request.

HOOPER-MAYO COMPANY
Eugene Timber Lands Oregon

7% Investments to Net 7% to 8%

Invest in first mortgages — a good income. We have them here in Oklahoma City on high class, improved real estate where the actual value of the property is three times the amount of the loan — ample security.
Shall be pleased to send you upon request our free booklet describing our business and list of loans. We have loans of from $150.00 to $10,000.00.

AURELIUS-SWANSON CO.
20 State National Bank Bldg. Oklahoma City, Okla.

7% Minus Risk

To those seeking a safe investment yielding an adequate return we recommend

Seattle Mortgage Loans

Booklet describing these loans and properties on which they are based sent on request.

American Bank Building
SEATTLE, WASH.

G·W· Upper & Co·

A New York Business Home

in an attractive colonial business and loft building with complete heating, lighting and sanitary equipment on each floor. Four floors ready for immediate occupancy. Each floor has 60 feet open street frontage and contains 5,576 square feet, well lighted, freight and passenger elevators, 2 stairways, and fire-escape. Location in 16th Street, New York City, two blocks from 14th Street Express Subway Station and in touch with best transit in the city. Lease for term of years on extremely favorable basis, made possible by long term underlying lease. Property can be shown at any time by writing, telephoning or calling at New York Office of

DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & COMPANY
11 West 32nd Street **New York**

The Travelers "20-25" Contract

$20,000 Accident Insurance For $25

THE TRAVELERS **"20-25"** is the latest policy of the largest accident company in the world.

This policy pays **$20,000** for serious disabilities and death resulting from **Railway, Vessel, Elevator and Hotel Fire casualties for a yearly premium of $25.** The policy covers accidents of all kinds, but is designed particularly for those who use "common carriers." And to such persons this policy offers more protection against serious accidents for the same money than any other policy.

Larger and smaller amounts at proportionate cost.

The Travelers Insurance Co., Hartford, Conn. W. Work. B. Tear off

Send particulars of "20-25" Accident Policy. My name, address, occupation and date of birth are below:

50

What Sanatogen will ... for your Heal...

"IF you take Sanatogen regularly three times a day you will have gained, in a few weeks, a fund of added health, nerve strength and a general sense of well-being which you cannot fail to *feel* and appreciate." This is what thousands of intelligent men and women who have partaken of the benefits of Sanatogen would tell you, did they enjoy your acquaintance; this is also what thousands of practising physicians might say, for it is a fact that over 17,000 of them have written us of the remarkable benefits they have observed from the use of Sanatogen. They tell us in these letters how Sanatogen infuses new strength and endurance into weak and nervous people, how wonderfully it improves digestion, how quickly its concentrated nourishment builds up the blood and gives new tone and strength to the entire system. The overworked business man, mothers (especially nursing mothers), men and women who have made too heavy drafts upon their vitality, will find in Sanatogen a splendid source of renewed health and strength. And remember Sanatogen is a *natural*, healthful food and tonic—purest protein and organic phosphorus—free from anything unnatural or harmful, so that little children can take it with nothing but benefit. You can obtain Sanatogen of any good druggist; it comes to you as a fine white powder which you can pleasantly mix with milk, chocolate, etc.

Sanatogen is sold by good druggists everywhere, in three sizes, from $1.00

THE BAUER CHEMICAL CO., 26D Irving Place, New York

Write for a Free copy of "Nerve Health Regained"

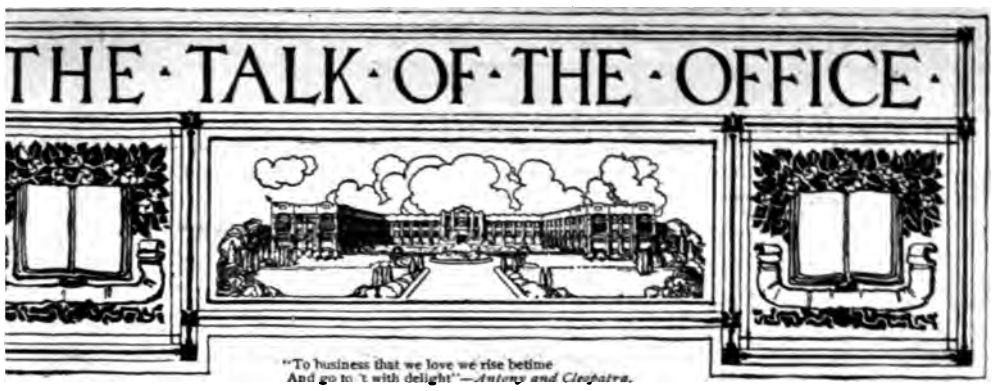
If you wish to learn more about Sanatogen before you use it, write for a free copy of this booklet, beautifully illustrated and comprising facts and information of the greatest interest.

John Burroughs,
The distinguished naturalist and author, writes:
"I am sure I have been greatly benefited by Sanatogen. My sleep is fifty per cent. better than it was one year ago, and my mind and strength are much improved"

Arnold Bennett
the famous novelist, writes:
"The tonic effect of Sanatogen on me is simply wonderful."

The Right Rev.
The Bishop of Southampton writes:
"It gives me pleasure to bear my testimony to the value of Sanatogen as an invigorating tonic and restorative. It is undoubtedly beneficial."

SANATOGEN



"To business that we love we rise betime
And go to't with delight"—*Antony and Cleopatra.*

'NTRY Life Press!" calls the con-
ıctor as you draw up to a red tiled
ation — a brand new one, by the
ıst completed — and if it is your first
› the Press, you "follow your leader,"
:e is always some one else bound for
ne place. But it isn't hard to find.
it is, just across the tracks from you,
very much settled and very busy —
t too busy to be glad to welcome
riends who will steal an hour or two
it.

third spring finds us very much at
ı Garden City and we extend a fresh
on to you to come and visit The Coun-
: Gardens. We shall have on our best
frock then, so to speak, a new station
eive you and the addition to the south
the building will be open for inspection.
not come?

RECENT RECORDS

ccounts agree that the enjoyment of
ene Stratton-Porter's books during the
ar has been more widespread than that
other book or series of books published.
ooks are sweet and wholesome — they
ıe unquenchable optimism and deter-
striving for the best of life of the best
f American citizenship. They are
: without muck-raking or special study
blems." They tell the intimate story
life of men and women of decent en-
:nt and wholesome aspirations. Eight
eginning with "Freckles," these books
egularly increased sales each twelve
— and the tide of sales is still rising.

"VIRGINIA"

Ellen Glasgow's "Virginia" is a new
st ready which is thus described in the
of a distinguished Southern critic:—
as reached the depth of a woman's
depth that is seldom stirred. Her
, and interpretation of women, and
blem that vexes the thousands of them,
ot be done by any one but a woman.
ginia's life is a demonstration that the
time when love was woman's whole existence, is necessarily a thing of the past. Her story is told entirely without editorial comment. But after you have read it, you will understand that a woman must work side by side with men. That she should, and does, love her work; but that being a woman, work cannot completely fill her life. She must be a wife and a mother to achieve perfect happiness."

FEWER AND BETTER BOOKS

A reference to the advertising of our spring books in the pages of this issue shows that we have been able notably to diminish the number of books published during the spring season. There is evidence of the same effort on the part of other American publishers, and this is a service to all the interests affected — authors, book-sellers, and readers.

THE PEONY GARDEN

The American Peony Society has transferred to our Garden the finest collection of named varieties of peonies yet made in this country. There is thus afforded the opportunity to study and know this old-time favorite in all its improved glory and the collection is so complete that the whole story of peony development will be told in one chapter.

A MATTER OF MOMENTUM

The stimulus of apparent appreciation attends our efforts during the first quarter of 1913, for with the books and with the magazines, this period is the most interesting and largest in volume in the history of the business.

We hope this larger output indicates that the business is building up an influence and following among both readers and advertisers — which results in a larger service in many directions. The splendidly interesting advertising of the recent numbers of the magazines is deserving of attention as well as the text, on the part of those readers of alert mind who find it a matter of everyday interest to keep abreast of what is going on in the world.

FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

The readers of the WORLD'S WORK, after all, are its real editors. That does not relieve us of our responsibilities to it, nor to them; but we have lately received so many stimulating and encouraging and suggestive letters from individual members of this larger editorial board that we think it only fair to submit a digest of them to them all. For example, we have analyzed more than two thousand recent letters and have tabulated the preferences of readers among several broad classifications of general subjects that are treated from time to time in the magazine. Quite naturally, we think, the largest number of votes favors "The March of Events," for that is an interpretation of the events of the day that point the way to progress, and it contains of necessity so large a variety of subjects that it inevitably strikes oftener upon the especial interest of more readers than any combination of longer articles is likely to do.

Next in preference is the series of articles on investments. Clearly, these articles have met, as we had intended and hoped that they should, one of the most urgent needs of people who wish to know how to make their spare dollars earn the largest income that is possible without danger of loss.

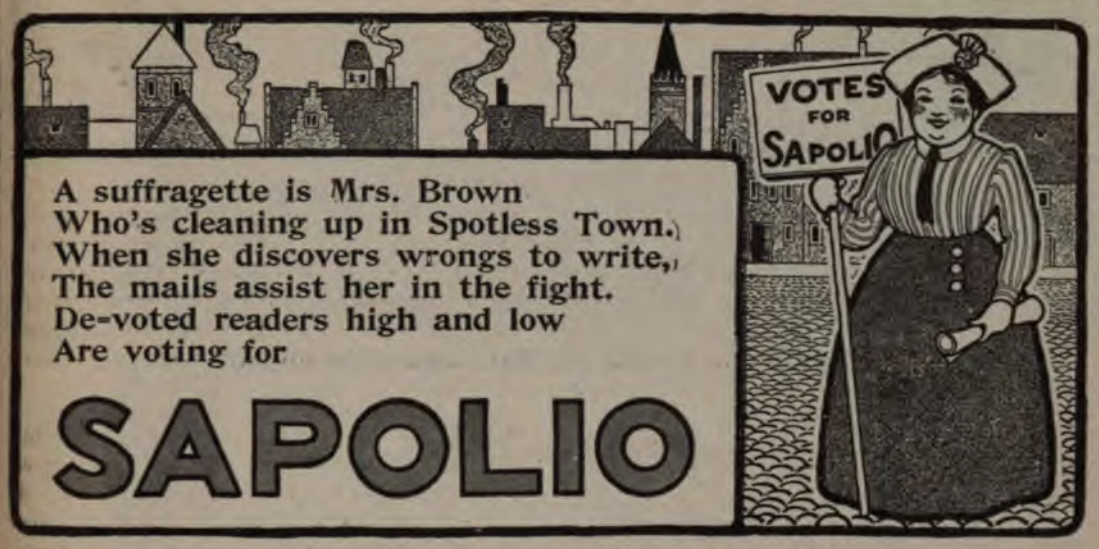
Next in favor come the little articles that appear every month under the title of "Forward to the Land." The letters about these articles come from all parts of the country and from men and women of all degrees of financial standing, indicating the universality of the consciousness that the solution of the problem of a better money return from the soil and of a fuller social return from country life is one of the most pressing tasks before the country. The articles of constructive protest against the national pension fraud a "pork barrel" appropriations h out the next largest bulk of a Following these, in order, are sketches of men and women in articles on politics, articles on progress, general articles on and records of the advance in sa medicine.

One of our editors is mak study of farm credits. I anything about the subject interest on farm loans in munity, mortgage rates, examp with coöperative credit meth neighborhood — he would gr ciate a few lines about it and your reward in aiding us to be in probably the most importa can be done to reduce the cos

Every month since the fir our circulation departmen a larger edition printed than t fore, but every time, neverth mand has so far exceeded the the WORLD'S WORK has been on the day of publication, so t could not be filled and many ne whose subscriptions were rec last few days of the preceding not get the current issue the We print this fact as a tribut ciency of our readers as co-edit

We still need criticism an What subjects especially The coupon at the bottom of th you an opportunity to expres erences from the current issue the names of subjects you wou handled. Will you help us by

The March of Events
Small Investors' Money for Home Building
The New Chief of the Secret Service
The Motion Picture Teacher
What We Are Trying To Do
The New Freedom
Watching President Wilson at Work
My Work for Crippled Children
The Coming City
Eight Million Books a Year
Addison Broadhurst, Master Merc
Making Foods of Chemicals
The March of the Cities
Forward to the Land



A suffragette is Mrs. Brown
Who's cleaning up in Spotless Town.
When she discovers wrongs to write,
The mails assist her in the fight.
De-voted readers high and low
Are voting for

SAPOLIO

You know that harsh, chemical cleaners give poor suds.

Try this: Lather your hands with Sapolio. Swish them back and forth through a bowl of warm water. See the rich suds form.

Now try the same with any other cleaning compound.

Where are the suds?

Of course, strong harsh compounds will remove dirt. (So will sand-paper and caustic soda.) But they give tins a dull, "frosted" surface. In time they grind off the tin coating. Then your tins rust. If you want tin-ware that shines like a mirror, use Sapolio. It contains no strong chemicals or coarse, injurious grit.

Rub a damp cloth on a cake of Sapolio. You then have a quick, economical cleaner for tin-ware, enamel-ware, kitchen knives and forks, pots and kettles, dishes, woodwork and marble. Works without waste.

Our Spotless Town booklet tells more about Sapolio and more about Spotless Town. Write for it. Sent free.

Enoch Morgan's Sons Company
Sole Manufacturers
New York City

This is the grocer of Spotless Town.
He hears your wants and notes them down.
He gives you credit for being wise
And charges you to use your eyes
The names upon the labels show.
He deals in real

SAPOLIO

SILVERWARE to-day although greatly prized for its intrinsic value and beauty, must, to realize its highest usefulness be designed for practical service.

In response to the demand for silverware fulfilling such requirements, The Gorham Co. places at the command of every purchaser the product of the world's largest and leading Silversmith.

Wherever you may be you will find Gorham Silverware offered for your selection, by leading jewelers, at prices no higher than are asked for wares less well-known and of inferior designs.

COPYRIGHT 1913

For identification look for this trade-mark

STERLING

THE GORHAM CO.
SILVERSMITHS
NEW YORK

GORHAM SILVER POLISH—THE BEST FOR CLEANING SILVER.

The Readers' Service will gladly furnish information about foreign travel

TIME—the Great Factor in Business

The day when a business man could afford to carry an inaccurate watch is long passed. The successful man has no use for a watch whose time must be confirmed.

The proof of the accuracy of the Hamilton Watch is found in railroad service—where accuracy is an absolute necessity. **Over one-half (56%) of the railroad men on American roads where Official Time Inspection is maintained carry the**

Hamilton Watch

"The Railroad Timekeeper of America"

Hamilton Watches are made in correct sizes for men and women and sold by jewelers everywhere.

Movements only are $12.25 and upward. Complete watches, certain sizes, are $38.50 to $150.00. Ask your jeweler about them; also about fitting your present watch case with a Hamilton movement.

Write for "The Timekeeper"

It illustrates and describes the various Hamilton models and is a book well worth reading if you are thinking of buying a fine watch.

Engineer T. P. HOWARD, of the "California Limited," Iron Mountain R.R., has carried a Hamilton Watch for many years.

HAMILTON WATCH COMPANY, Dept. Q, Lancaster, Pennsylvania

The Power of Silent Service

If the crowd on the stock exchange kept quiet and let one man talk, that man could be heard in every corner of the room. But the shouting members produce a composite of sound, so that no one trader is understood except by a small group around a particular trading post.

If everyone were able to shout twice as loud, the result would be only a greater noise, and less intelligible.

For communication to be universal there must be silent transmission. In a noisy stock exchange where the voice, unaided, cannot be understood across the room, there are hundreds of telephones which carry speech half way across the continent.

The telephone converts the spoken words into silent electrical impulses.

In a single Bell telephone cable, a hundred conversations can be carried side by side without interference, and then distributed to as many different cities and towns throughout the land. Each conversation is led through a system of wire pathways to its proper destination, and whispers its message into a waiting ear.

Silent transmission and the interconnecting lines of the Bell System are indispensable for universal telephone service.

Without such service, our cities would be slow of speech and the States would be less closely knit together.

AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY

AND ASSOCIATED COMPANIES

Every Bell Telephone is the Centre of the System

In writing to advertisers please mention THE WORLD'S WORK

United States Tires

have cut down the high cost of motoring

UNITED STATES Tires today yield an average mileage from 25 to 50 per cent higher than was ever given by any make of tires previous to the organization of the United States Tire Company two years ago.

Our own records prove this.

Every unprejudiced dealer in the country will admit it.

Ask your friends who are using United States Tires, how much more mileag *they* are getting *now* than they were in 1910.

The co-operative methods of manufacture employed exclusively in making United States Tires have accomplished this increase in tire-mileage and decrease in tire expenses.

Two years ago we predicted that concentrating the efforts and facilities of four of the world's most modern tire-making plants on the making of one line of tires, would result in the most radical reduction in tire expense ever known to the industry.

We have made good our prediction.

United States Tires have today come to be acknowledged everywhere as

AMERICA'S PREDOMINANT TIRES

and the simple reason back of it is this—they have cut down tire bills.

United States Tires are made in three types—Clincher, Quick Detachable and Genuine Dunlop (Straight Side), the tire that is absolutely *guaranteed* against rim-cutting. You have your choice of three treads—Plain treads and the world-famous Nobby and Chain Treads.

UNITED STATES TIRE COMPANY, New York

United States Pneumatic Tires are guaranteed when filled with *air* at the recommended pressure and attached to a rim bearing either one or both of the accompanying inspection stamps. When filled with any substitute for *air* or attached to any other rims than those specified, our guarantee is withdrawn.

Signs of fair weather

Cheer-up and content-ment built by a jimmy pipe packed with P. A.!

5c
for P. A. in the toppy red bag.

You get acquainted with Prince Albert tobacco either in a jimmy pipe or rolled into a cigarette. In fragrance, sweetness, and non-biting qualities, P. A. backs right off the map any tobacco you ever smoked, no matter what it cost!

PRINCE ALBERT

the national joy smoke

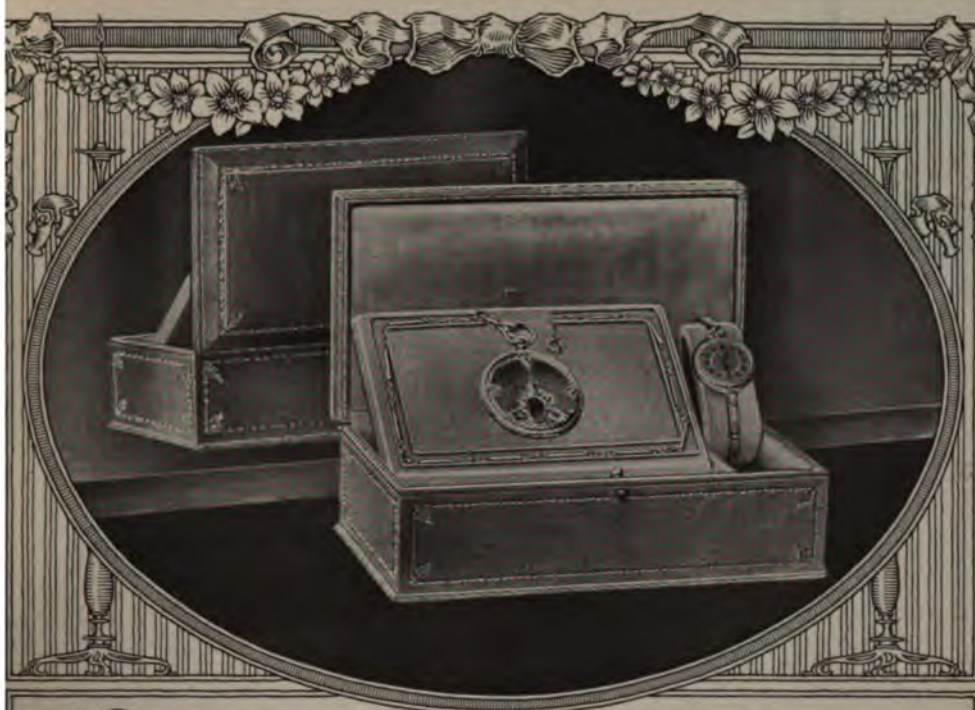
can't bite your tongue. *And that's a fact!* It is made by a patented process *which removes the bite!*

Smoke P. A. as long and as hard as you like. It won't even nip your tongue. Join the millions of Prince Albert smokers and get all the joy out of life you can. It's due you!

Buy Prince Albert tobacco everywhere in the toppy red bag, 5c; tidy red tin, 10c, and also in handsome pound and half-pound humidors

R. J. Reynolds Tobacco Co.
Winston-Salem, N. C.

The Readers' Service will give information about the latest automobile accessories



Waltham Watches As a Combination Wedding Gift

This Waltham innovation creates a new wedding gift, appealing equally to the Bride and Bridegroom and bestowing on the giver a happy sense of avoiding the commonplace.

These "Bride-and-Groom" sets combine high grade Waltham movements (for ladies and gentlemen) in cases which are identically engraved or enameled. Corresponding spaces are left for the initialing.

Exquisite leather boxes are provided for these combinations as in the photograph above. (The man's watch shown in the illustration is open-face but the back of the case is shown to indicate the engraving).

We are offering five of these combinations ranging in price from $100 to $400 for the sets complete.

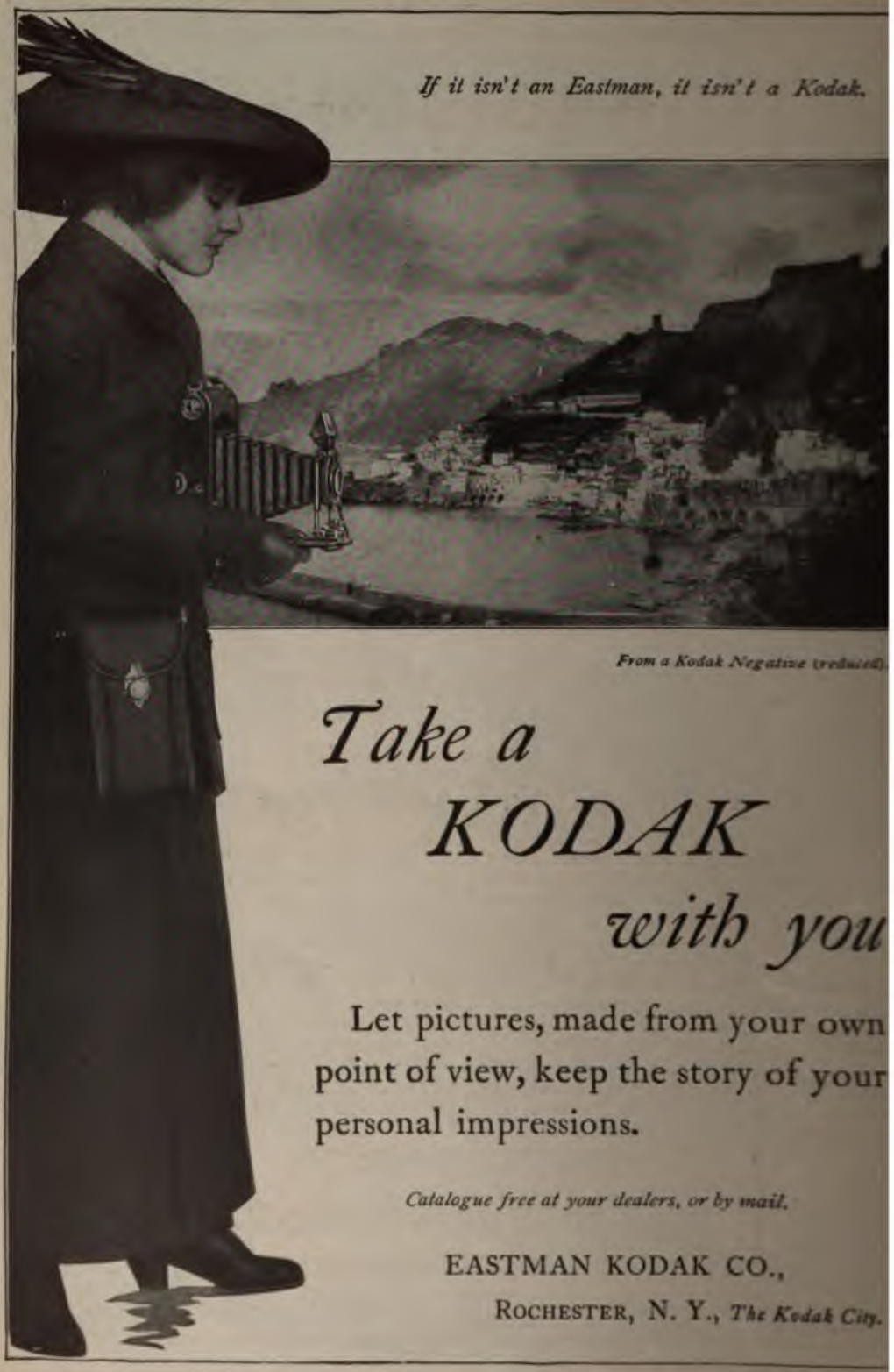
We believe you will agree with us that no gift to the bride and groom could be more true to sentiment or more permanently welcome than these symmetrical watches.

If your jeweler has not yet secured for display these sets kindly write to us and we will arrange for you to see them without any trouble or obligation on your part, and we will also send you the "Bride-and-Groom" booklet which gives complete information.

For a graduation gift do not forget the supremacy of the Waltham (Riverside) Watch

Waltham Watch Company
Waltham, Mass.

If it isn't an Eastman, it isn't a Kodak.



From a Kodak Negative (reduced).

Take a KODAK with you

Let pictures, made from your own point of view, keep the story of your personal impressions.

Catalogue free at your dealers, or by mail.

EASTMAN KODAK CO.,
ROCHESTER, N. Y., *The Kodak City.*

NABISCO
Sugar Wafers

enrich the elaborate luncheon, adorn the simplest of "afternoons." Their goodness and attractiveness are pleasing alike to hostess and guests.

Sweetness and flavor are delightfully united in these highly esteemed dessert confections.

In ten cent tins; also in twenty-five cent tins.

ADORA:—A filled sugar wafer—the newest of dessert sweets.

FESTINO:—A favorite confection in the guise of an almond, with a kernel of almond-flavored cream.

CHOCOLATE TOKENS:—A dessert confection having a rich chocolate coating.

NATIONAL BISCUIT COMPANY

Pebeco is more than a mere toilet preparation. It originated in the hygienic laboratories of P. Beiersdorf & Co., Hamburg, Germany.

Have you "acid-mouth"? Test your mouth for acid with one of the Test Papers sent with each 10-day trial tube of Pebeco.

The Dentifrice that Meets Scientific Requirements

IT was the recognition of mouth acidity as the great cause of tooth-decay tha proved the need of a dentifrice that not only cleans the teeth, but also keep the mouth in a normal, healthy state, free from acid.

PEBECO TOOTH PASTE

Pebeco is the one dentifrice that was scientifically made to preserve the teeth as well as clean them. It was formulated to overcome the excess of mouth acids that gradually weaken the enamel until the bacteria of decay complete the destruction of the tooth. It affords you a dental preparation of established and unique merit.

Most people (dentists say 9 out of 1(have unnaturally acid mouths. Hence tl test in choosing a dentifrice should be or that will not only cleanse and whiten tl teeth, but which will also exert such a ton and stimulating effect upon the whole mou as to protect them against the underlyir *cause* of their decay.

Such is Pebeco Tooth Paste, prepared in the laboratories of P. Beiersdorf & Co Hamburg, Germany, and meeting all requirements of Scientists and the Dental Professi the world over. Sold in extra-large tubes by dealers everywhere. Very economical. Sav money and saves teeth.

Send for FREE Trial Tube and Acid-Test Papers

and prove Pebeco's efficiency by the "acid-mouth" test illustrated above at the right. Pebe whitens the teeth and purifies the breath. You will enjoy the delicious sensation of revitalizatic and refreshment it gives.

LEHN & FINK, Manufacturing Chemists, 138 William St., New Yo

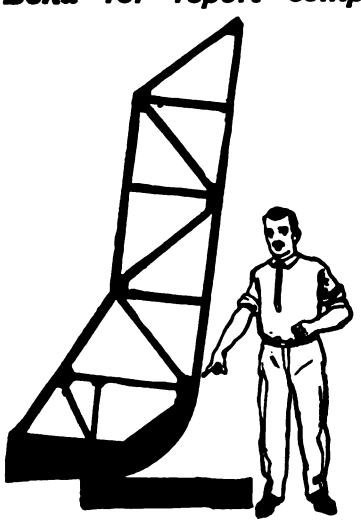
Producers of Lehn & Fink's Riveris Talcum

MASTER BUILDERS

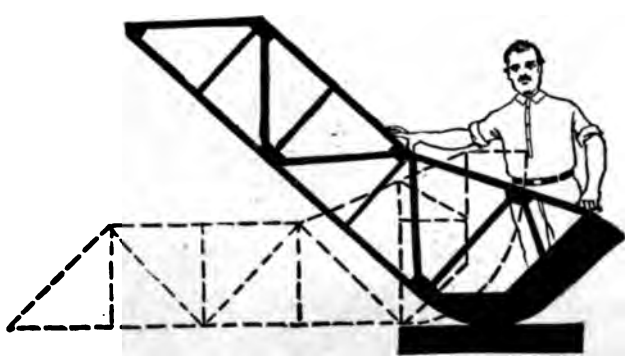
Scherzer ROLLING Lift Bridges

Are Simplest, Strongest, Speediest, Safest, Cheapest

Send for report comparing all methods of crossing a channel



These simple diagrams show the rounded "end" or segment, upon which our bridge ROLLS—eliminating friction and expense.



NEARLY 200 Scherzer Rolling Lift Bridges now in successful use in the United States, Canada, England, Ireland, Wales, France, Belgium, Holland, Russia, Egypt, Burma, India, South America, Hawaiian Islands, Mexico, and other countries.

Scherzer ROLLING Lift Bridges, by rolling (or rocking) upon a *section* of a wheel, eliminate the only cause of trouble in other rolling stock—the friction-causing axles and journals (in bridges called trunnions).

Their simplicity makes them cost less than other movable bridges all the way through. The mechanical correctness of their ROLLING principle, universally used for all progressive land movement, makes them the most *efficient*, the most *rapid* and the most *safe* of all movable bridges.

Scherzer ROLLING Lift Bridges can open or close in thirty seconds, preventing the traffic delays with ordinary bridges. They leave the channel entirely clear by rolling upward and back away from the channel. They save enormous sums in wharf room by using no space on either side. They are the shortest span to bridge any channel because, their roller being *part* of a wheel, they roll back to open and advance as they roll downward, saving many feet of span, a radical saving in weight, material and motive power.

Scherzer ROLLING Lift Bridges can be added to, side by side, as traffic increases. No wasteful replacement. One man operates one or many. The open bridge barricades the river and signals distant traffic to stop.

Scherzer ROLLING Lift Bridges are built rapidly, because *they have extremely few pieces.*

Send for list of municipalities and corporations all over the world successfully using Scherzer ROLLING Lift Bridges. Hundreds in operation. Full information, sketches and estimates sent upon request.

Going abroad? I

ed through the Readers' Service

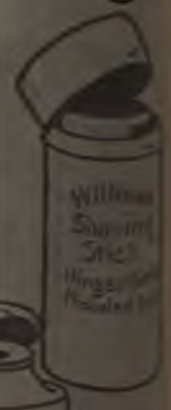
Williams' Shaving Soaps

"The kind that won't smart or dry on the face"

When you use Williams' Holder-Top Shaving Stick every shave is a shave of perfect comfort and economy

because the Holder Top not only offers a firm, dry holding surface for the fingers, but also permits you to use the stick down to the last bit, including the part that you used to throw away.

And from first to last you get a rich, creamy lather that softens the beard, remains moist, and leaves the skin smooth and refreshed.



Other forms of Williams' Shaving Soaps are:

Williams' Shaving Stick Hinged-cover Nickeled Box
Williams' Shaving Powder Hinged-cover Nickeled Box
Williams' Shaving Cream (in tubes)

SPECIAL OFFER
Men's Combination Package

A liberal trial sample of Williams' Holder-Top Shaving Stick, Shaving Powder, Shaving Cream, Jersey Cream Toilet Soap, Violet Talc Powder and Dental Cream. Postpaid for 24 cents in stamps.

A single sample of either of the above articles sent for 4 cents in stamps.

Address
THE J. B. WILLIAMS CO., Dept. A, Glastonbury, Conn.

Rubber!

South America's Choicest Product, Developed by North American Ingenuity to the Highest Degree of Efficiency and Utility, in the Manufacture of

Waterman's Ideal Fountain Pen

From forest to finish there is a characteristic superiority in Waterman's Ideals. The pure Para rubber used insures durability, tightness and fine finish. The appreciation of the quality of these pens has built three enormous factories and placed representative assortments in the best stores of every locality for convenient, personal selection. Gold pens to suit every character of handwriting.

Booklet on styles or story of manufacture on request.

L. E. Waterman Company, 173 Broadway, New York

NORTHERN PACIFIC
YELLOWSTONE PARK LINE

Fun for Everybody In Yellowstone National Park

¶The Geysers, Cataracts, Canyons, Mountains, Lakes and Streams are spread in most alluring array around the superb 143-mile coaching trip through America's Only Geyserland. Jaunts of one, two or more days at small cost, or complete tour in 6 days only $55.50. Fishing galore in the flashing trout streams—side trips to the haunts of Bison, Bear, Deer, Elk, Antelope, Beaver and other weird creatures so plentiful in this greatest of Uncle Sam's preserves. Go this summer sure!

Low fares for the Park trip by itself or in connection with Pacific Coast trips. Through sleeping cars direct to Gardiner Gateway, the original Yellowstone Park entrance from Chicago, St. Paul, Minneapolis and from Pacific Coast daily during season. Gardiner is reached only via the Northern Pacific. Let me tell you about Summer Tourist and Convention Tickets at greatly reduced rates. Write today.

A. M. CLELAND, Gen'l Pass'r Agent, ST. PAUL
Offices in Leading Cities

Northern Pacific Railway

Panama-Pacific International Exposition: San Francisco, Feb. - Dec., 1915

Gardiner Station, Northern Pacific's Gateway to Yellowstone Park, the Original and Northern Entrance

Send for complete book catalog

Jack and I in

COLORADO

Roc
Islar

In Colorado—and in luck, Jack says—for you never could start in to *imagine* all the delights we have found—such air, such scenery—such wonderful fishing!

Of course, we came on that de Luxe

Rocky Mountain Limited

—every morning from Chicago to Denver, Colorado Springs and Pueblo—

the smoothest, most comfortable train that ever happened—we got here in a day that really was too short. Slept like a top and enjoyed every hour of the dining car, the books, the music, and the homey comfort of the service.

"The Colorado Flyer"

every morning from St. Louis, and other splendidly equipped, fast daily trains via Rock Island Lines from Chicago, St. Louis, Kansas City, St. Joseph, Omaha and Memphis for Colorado, Yellowstone Park and the Pacific Coast.

"Little Journeys in Colorado" and "Under the Turquoise Sky" are two books which make the way clear. Let me send them to you. L. M. Allen, Pass. Traff. Mgr., La Salle Station, Chicago, Ill.

Save time in your office work. The Readers' Service is acquainted with the latest devices.

COLORADO

Plan to go there this summer. There is health and a good time for everyone in this wonderful country.

You can ride or tramp where the dead levels are higher than eastern mountains; fish or hunt in sparkling altitudes; see Nature's show places—Pike's Peak, Colorado Springs and the Garden of the Gods.

Your pleasure begins the moment you step on board one of the fast, luxurious trains of the

Union Pacific
Standard Road of the West

Protected by Automatic Electric Block Safety Signals.
Dustless Roadbed. Double Track.
Excellent Dining Cars.

The Union Pacific is the new and direct route to Yellowstone National Park, affording tourists an opportunity of visiting Colorado enroute without inconvenience or delay.

For further particulars call on nearest representative or address

Gerrit Fort, Passenger Traffic Manager

Union Pacific
Room 46, Omaha, Neb.

VOS

PIANOS

The **tone, touch** and **magnifice**
qualities of the **VOSE** Piano a
by the exclusive patented feature
grade material and superb wo
that enter into their construction.
an ideal Piano for the home. Ove
Delivered in the United States fr
Satisfaction guaranteed. Libe
for old pianos and time payments acc
FREE—If you are interested in pianos,
our beautifully illustrated catalog that gives
VOSE & SONS PIANO CO., 175 Boylston St.,

Esterbro

Pens

250 styles

E
Reli
is an
dinary p
adjusts itsel
desired slant ar
smoother than
goose quill. Made
alloyed metal-
—and finishe
Write fo
Esterbro
95 John Street
Work

ıve you ever met

ı Hance? He's a Grand Can- guide, and a teller of stories might be true, if—

ın Hance prides himself on being the accomplished fictionist in Arizona. He /intered and summered at the Grand ɔn for thirty years. Hamlin Garland, lelightful study of this pioneer guide, ıs that Hance is a most dramatic racon-

ɔ. Hance doesn't ride the trails often Age is slowing up his wanderlust. ıe has not lost his ability as a pleasant ricator.

worth stopping off at Williams, Ari- on the transcontinental trip, and tak- ıe sixty-five miles' run up to the can- f canyons, just to meet Hance face to

ɜ tales lose their flavor when reduced int. They require his soft, drawling, pitched voice, and awkward gestures. they require the canyon environment. e anecdote concerns the time he ed a pack of wild wolves by riding full ff the rim and jumping unafraid into ɔyss. When within a few yards of the m, Hance saved his own life by gently ıg from the saddle. The horse met an ıely death on the rocks below. Do sk for proof? He will show you the s and the bones!

ıry-telling is as old as the race.

e Grand Canyon is older. But what's n more or less among friends?

e point is, that no matter what the yes- y of this sublime scenic spectacle was, y it is the Wonder of the World. ıy happens to be the day you are on , too. So why not pack your grip and ere by the first Santa Fe train?

e journey is so easy and the cost so g, if taken as a side tour on the way from California.

ıny travelers say that El Tovar Hotel, ged by Fred Harvey, is sufficient rea- or the canyon outing. El Tovar is a -like inn. Here, in the wilderness, an get a tub bath, eat grape-fruit for fast, and scan a dinner menu that l make Fifth Avenue envious. Next for contrast, are Navaho hogans and adobes, housing primitive Indians. Next door, too, is that great gash in the earth, a mile deep, miles wide, and painted like a hundred sunsets.

Three days spent at the Grand Canyon equal three weeks spent anywhere else. That's a modest comparison.

One day can be given to the trail. It zigzags for eight miles down, down, down to the Colorado River. It zigzags the same distance back. You leave in the morning; you get back in the late afternoon. You wear a suit of khaki or blue jeans, or any old thing. You ride a placid mule — though volcanic if disturbed when off duty. The mule seems ninety per cent of the trip, and the canyon the remaining ten. Afterward, in memory, the values are reversed.

Maybe you have not been in the saddle for twenty years. The saddle for you today, plus the mule, plus the mile-deep hole. You early learn the mule's name and repeat it often when rounding the steep places; perhaps say things about fools who rush in, etc. You are one of a little party, in charge of an experienced guide. The guide is used to it; you are not. There's a thrill for you at every turn; the guide is placid. But he knows the way, bosses the mules, and restores confidence. It is a pleasure to be guided in such fashion.

You reach the river at noon, lunch, throw stones in the rapids, and start back uphill. How far and tall the cliffs are! How distant the hotel on the rim is! You get to the top eventually, tired but happy — happy in having had a unique experience.

Next day ride over to Grand View and see a different section of the canyon. The day after, ride on the rim boulevard and see the sunset from Hopi Point. Both jaunts in easy coaches.

Stay a few days more and try one of the many camping trips, if time can be spared.

If all this appeals to you, write to Mr. W. J. Black, Passenger Traffic Manager of the Santa Fe, 1055 Railway Exchange, Chicago. Ask him for copy of an illustrated booklet, "The Titan of Chasms." The cover is a four-color reproduction of an oil painting of the canyon by W. R. Leigh. Inside are articles by Powell, Lummis and Higgins, with full information about what to see, what to do, etc.

WHERE-TO-GO Bure... & BEACON ST...

NEW YORK

If Coming To New York Why Pay Excessive Hotel Rates?

CLENDENING 188 W. 103 St. New York
Select, homelike, economical. Suite of parlor, bedroom, private bath for two persons, $2.00 daily. Write for Booklet H., with fine map of city.*

Comfort without Extravagance
HOTEL WOODSTOCK
W. 43d Street, New York City
NEAR TIMES SQUARE
Center of shopping and theater section
Rates upon application

Blue Mountain House. Opens May 1. Fine Trout Fishing. M. T. Merwin, Propr. Blue Mt. Lake, N.Y. Write for Booklet, etc.

BOSTON MASS.

HEALTH RESORTS

COME TO BATTLE CREEK
The Battle Creek Sanitarium affords the most abundant facilities for rest, recreation and health improvement. The unique diet system, physical culture classes, interesting health lectures, swimming, golf, tennis, motoring, boating, and a hundred other attractive features fill each days program with useful entertainment. Guests have the combined advantages to be derived from favorable climatic conditions, home-like surroundings, scientific methods, and daily medical supervision. — WRITE FOR PROSPECTUS —
THE SANITARIUM · BATTLE CREEK, MICH. Box 109

THE ATTLEBORO SANITARIUM

THE BEECHES PARIS HILL, MAINE.
A sanitarium for semi-invalids. Altitude 900 feet. White Mt. scenery. *Dr. Charlotte F. Hammond.*

MT. CLEMENS FAMOUS MINERAL BATHS

FOR RHEUMATISM AND NERVOUS BREAK DOWNS
WRITE FOR INFORMATION
THE COLONIAL
BOX G, MT. CLEMENS, MICH.

STEUBEN HORNELL N. Y.
Sanitarium has every facility known to medical science for the cure of invalids — Learn our incomparable record — Moderate rates — Write for Booklet.*

Superb Location on Spot Pond-Middlesex Fells, 7 Miles from Boston. Expert Physicians, 60 Trained Nurses. All Baths, Electrical, Dietetic and Hydrotherapeutic Treatments. Physical Culture, Battle Creek Methods. Address Melrose, Mass. Box 99. Booklet

SUNNYREST SANATORIUM, White Haven, Pa.
Don't cross a continent to treat tuberculosis, leaving home comforts and friends. "The invigorating Blue Mountains are better." Write Elwell B. Stockdale, Supt.*

ATLANTIC CITY N. J.

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Above illustration shows but one section of this magnificent and sumptuously fitted house—the Open Air Plaza and Enclosed Solariums overlook the Board-walk and the Ocean. The environment, convenience and comforts of the Marlborough-Blenheim and the invigorating climate at Atlantic City make this the ideal place for Spring and Summer. Always open. Write for handsomely illustrated booklet. Josiah White & Sons Company, Proprietors and Directors.*

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THE MOTOR TRUCK FROM ' VIEWPOINT OF ECONOMY

R. W. HUTCHINSON, M. E.

The first question that is asked a motor truck representative by at least nine tenths of the business firms who are thinking of installing motor trucks is "How much money will a motor truck save me over my horse vehicles?" The almost invariable answer is that "It depends on so and so." The qualifying conditions are enough to bewilder any business man seriously seeking enlightenment on this important problem.

The truth is, however, that no honest motor truck representative can truthfully say that a motor truck substituted for a certain number of horse teams will effect a saving in dollars and cents which can be guaranteed in round figures. Some truck manufacturers have attempted to do business on a basis of guaranteed operating expenses for their motor trucks and guaranteed maintenance expense and guaranteed economy in accomplishing the equivalent or greater amount of work over the horse equipment, but it is safe to add that everyone of these companies has gone the way of every enterprise which has not been established on safe, sane and sound business principles.

Although no honest motor truck manufacturer will guarantee that his product will cost such and such a figure a day, yet motor truck manufacturers can prove to the satisfaction of any man, that when he needs motor truck equipment and when he operates it in a manner approved by the engineering experts of their organizations that the economies will be sufficient to pay a larger dividend upon the capitalization represented by the motor trucks than perhaps any corresponding investment in mechanical equipment.

It takes but little analysis to show that when a 5 ton gasolene motor truck operating in public service delivery shows a gross profit of from $30 to $50 per day and a net profit of from $20 to $30 per day figuring that the original investment for the truck was $4500, that this mechanical equipment can show a profit of 100 per cent. per year on its cost calculating that a good motor truck is available for operation 300 business days in the year.

The business man who has not actually made sufficient investigation into the earning power of a motor truck is very skeptical as to the truth of a statement that mechanical haulage is showing a profit of from 100 to 200 per cent. But public service motor express companies who are operating and managing their enterprises on the same rigid business principles as are carried out in the cost accounting department for instance, of the U. S. Steel Corporation are getting such results, and there are a number of truck companies that can prove that under as favorable conditions as these public service motor express companies are operating, that it is quite possible for a business concern to get a similar ratio of earning in their own institutions.

The only reason that the private operators of motor trucks are not earning relatively the same ratio of dividends on their investment is that they have mistaken the motor truck in itself as a cure-all for all of their motor truck problems and have not speeded up the inside details of the delivery system to keep pace with the potential possibilities of a motor truck. True, the earning of 100 to 200 per cent. on its investment is exceptional profit for a motor truck to show in private use due to the fact tha motor companies can and do char ton or per ton mile for taking ca delivery system; however, the p motor truck would show when c service can and does run as high its investment cost.

The economies which motor t in delivery are seldom measureable and cents basis and in saying that t for the use of a private individu show a dividend of 100 per cent., earnings on the basis that the firs will enlarge the delivery area of the times and enable him to double or clientele of customers by making prompt deliveries and naturally profits. If the actual operating co which has displaced three or four the measuring rule of its economy case that the expense will be larger teams, but the earning capacity of so much more than that of the horse its ability to turn off twice or three t that the actual operating expense significant relation to its earning p

It is not the custom of the busi freedom from annoyance and worry in delivery of goods on a monetar truth the absence of the worry wi truck insures in a business organiz dividend feature which by itself wo truck a profitable investment even nothing else than to save the ener more productive work in gaining holding it. And in holding new b truck is the most favorable adjunct ment as it enables the carrying out if not fulfilled, always jeopardize t the customer who has been disappo

Sufficient facts have now been sh truck manufacturers to prove tha motor transportation justifies the co of a delivery system entirely with m haps the strongest proof of the econo as a real tangible quantity and not a of the enthusiastic motor truck repre in the fact that among all of the la the United States that have adopte during the last three or four years that time ample opportunity in whic economy, that there has not been If the motor truck had not proven it business organizations, many of wh transportation system in the sa business-like manner in which th manufacturing plants, would have been heard from in their denunciati truck as a failure. It is a most im hardly a single one of the large users that have put their squadrons of mo exact business system of operation an has uttered a word except in the mo terms of the revolution which the me agency has effected

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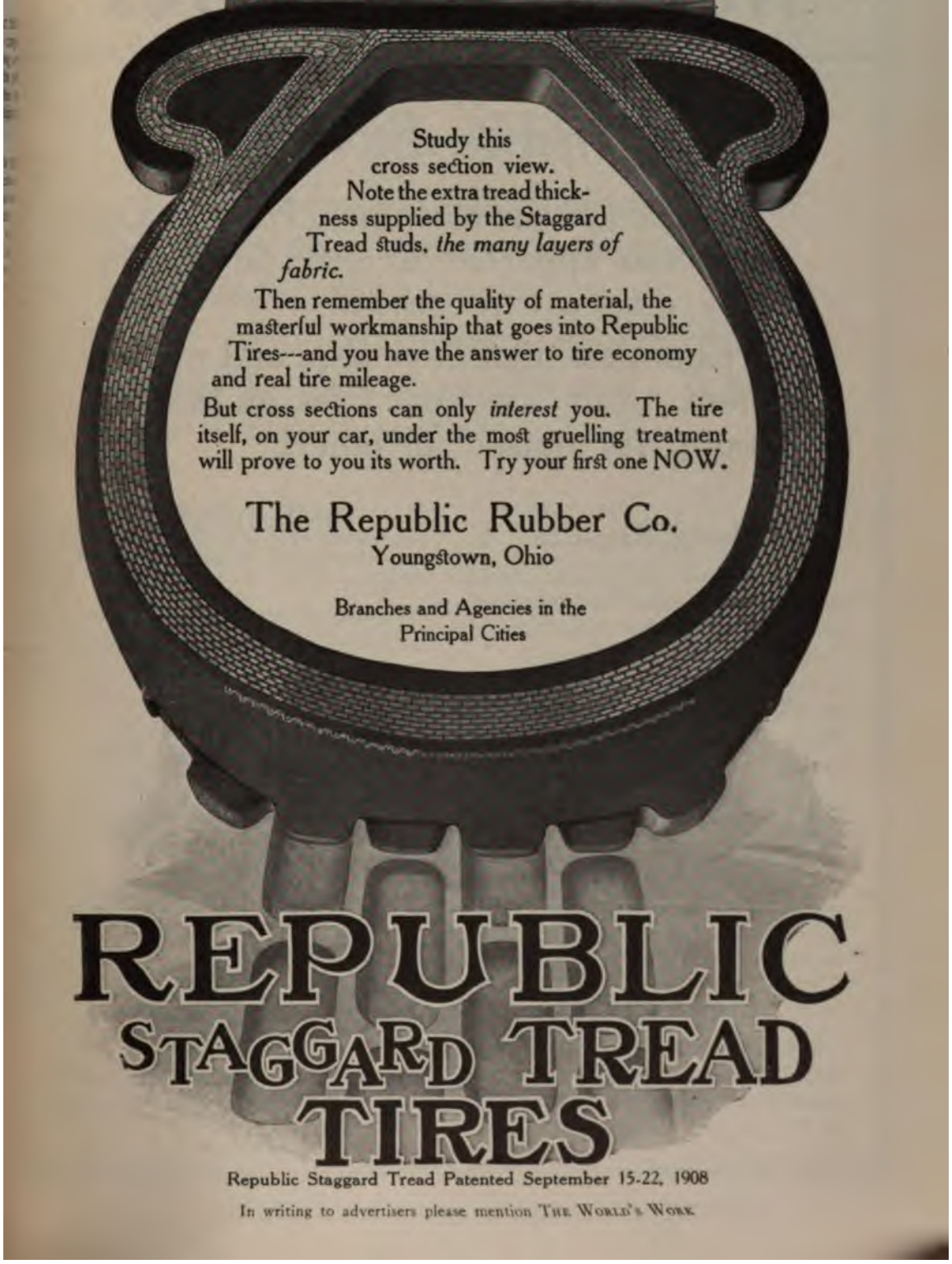

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Which way is best: one that keeps your valuable blue-prints, drawings, maps, etc., flat, smooth, clean, free from damage, and instantly findable; or one where they are jammed in pigeon holes or shoved into big drawers, crumpling the ends, breaking the corners, and shortening their life? The dust of the office makes them so grimy you hate to handle them; and they roll up and slip out of your hands or are so crinkly it is a nuisance to read them. How often has an important part of some blue-print you needed in a hurry been torn off—or the whole print lost?

"Y and E"

Mammoth Vertical File

For Blue-Prints, Drawings, Tracings, etc.

Compare the convenience of the "Y and E" Mammoth Vertical File with the troubles of the drawer and pigeon-hole method: nothing rolled, nothing crumpled, but everything kept flat, clean, and smooth as when put away.

This file will hold your plans, blue-prints, photographs, charts, and the scores of big unwieldy things every office has to keep somewhere, and be able to find quickly. You file them, like letters, in big manila folders reinforced at the top with wooden strips. You note their location on the index on the under side of the lid. Then you can put your finger on any one you want in a "jiffy."

The front pulls up and two legs spring into place, forming a flat, rigid table on which to examine drawings, but folding out of the way when not needed.

The "Y and E" Mammoth Vertical File, when closed, takes up but 4 square feet of floor space. In many instances it takes only one-third the space occupied by big drawer cabinets.

The "Y and E" Mammoth Vertical File holds 700 to 1000 prints, and is made in two sizes—for drawings 40 x 36 or 40 x 30. The cost is moderate.

Nearly every business house has important use for this Big Brother to the letter file.

Write for Booklet

"The Proper Place for Blue-Prints and Drawings"—which tells more about this handsome Mammoth Vertical File. Booklet is free if requested on your business letterhead.

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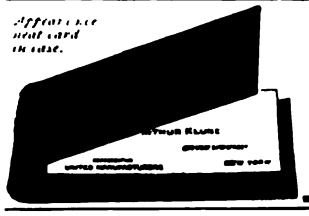

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A properly installed Siwelclo Closet is noiseless because we planned it to be noiseless, but it also fulfills every sanitary requirement—perfect flushing, security against sewer gas, etc.

Siwelclo Closets are made of Vitreous China, glazed at a temperature 1000 degrees higher than is possible with any other material. This makes a surface that actually repels dirt, like a china plate. Demonstrate this dirt-resisting quality by first trying to mark on a china plate, then on a kitchen utensil of white enameled iron.

Trenton Potteries Co. Solid Porcelain and Vitreous China fixtures are unequaled for service or beauty. If you are building or remodeling you will do well to consult with your architect about their installation. Your plumber will install them for you if you are making your own plans.

Write for our free illustrated booklet S 7, **"Bathrooms of Character,"** which will prove a valuable aid to you in your work.

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e Hoggson Single ct Building Method s that every item is to enter into a g operation shall be red before work on rt of the building is how else can the cost be determined nce?

limit of cost is not mined before foun-are started, how can aranteed?

i have no financially l guarantee of the cost, how can you hat the cost will be ary?

UILDING operation quires the services of rofessions and forty-six or more trades. How can the work of all these professions and trades be co-ordinated efficiently, except by one organization which is constituted, part by part, to meet these various requirements?

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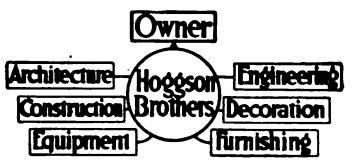

By concentrating responsibility in a single contract covering your entire building operation from plans to completion, you can obtain a financially sound guarantee of the cost and quality of *the whole*, as a whole.

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¶ A weather-proof paint that is really a clear, pure white is rare. White Lead has long been the standard white paint, yet none was really white until the Carter process of making white lead was perfected.

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¶ To make white paint, Carter White Lead is thinned with linseed oil to proper consistency. To make colored paint, the painter will add tinting colors. In either white or colors, pure Carter White Lead and linseed oil paint will be found both durable and economical.

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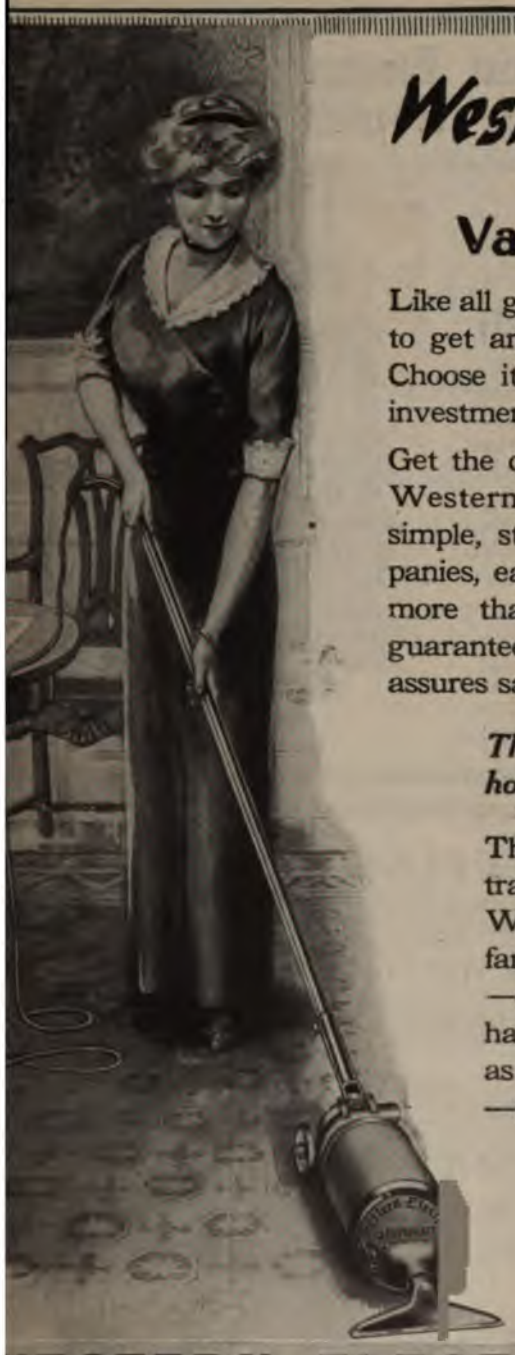

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Sturtevant
Vacuum Cleaner

Like all good housekeepers, you expect to get an electric cleaner some day. Choose it carefully. Don't risk your investment.

Get the cleaner of proven merit—the Western Electric-Sturtevant—the simple, sturdy product of two companies, each the leader in its line for more than 30 years. Their double guarantee frees you from all risk—and assures satisfaction *absolutely.*

The ideal cleaner for a small home, apartment or bungalow

The neat little cleaner illustrated is the smallest of the Western Electric-Sturtevant family. It weighs only 13 lbs. —can be easily carried in one hand—yet cleans as thoroughly as its big brothers. The price —$47.50, puts it in easy reach.

Larger types of portable cleaners are priced up to $125. If you intend to build ask us about our stationary cleaners. Details in Booklet No. 8-S.

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A wide range of stock sizes offers a choice to suit the smallest or largest family. Built-in-McCrays are designed as a part of the house and become a permanent feature for convenience and saving of steps. Outside icing door may be added to any McCray thus keeping the iceman out of the house.

Write for our free book "How to Use a Refrigerator" and any of the following catalogs:

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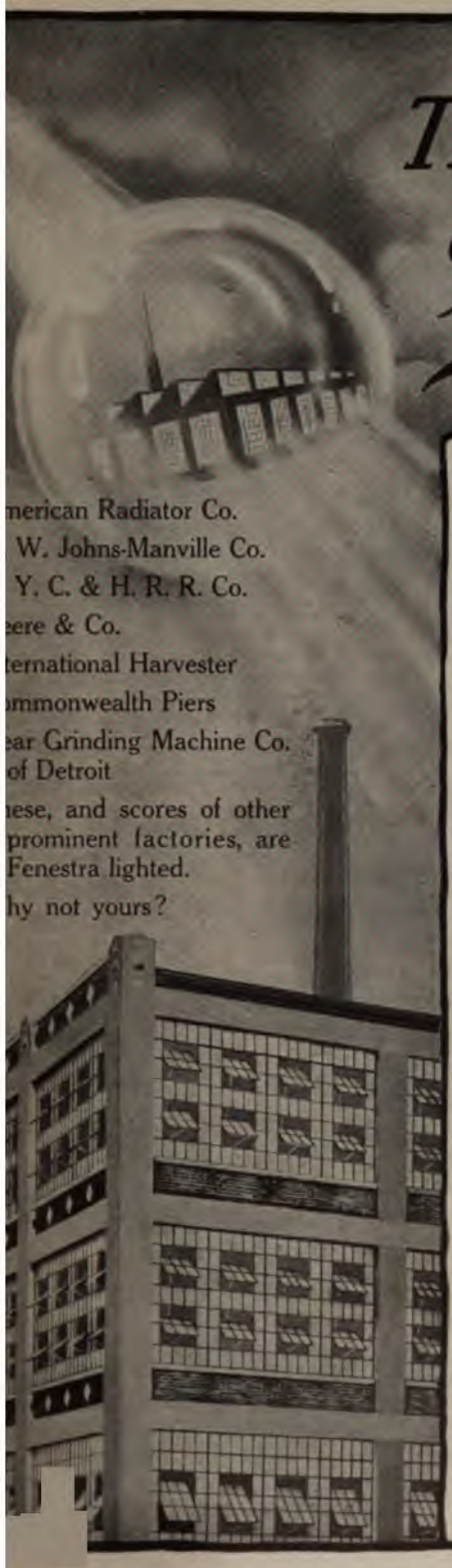

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Addressograph

TRADE MARK

PRINTS FROM TYPE

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Your best clerk can write 800 to 1,000 addresses per day. An office boy, with the ADDRESSOGRAPH, can print an equal number in less than half an hour. And the ADDRESSOGRAPH can be used not only for addressing envelopes, circulars, letters, etc., but also for filling customers' names in on statements and bills — printing employes' names on time clock cards, pay envelopes, pay checks, payroll tickets, payroll sheets and other forms — addressing shipping tags, dividend checks, notices, and, in fact, everything frequently sent out to a regular list of names.

Let Us Show You How To Eliminate Waste Effort In Your Office

Tell us about the lists of names you frequently address. Send us samples of your forms. Tell us how many names you have on your list. Then we can prove to you in dollars and cents just how profitable the ADDRESSOGRAPH would prove in your office.

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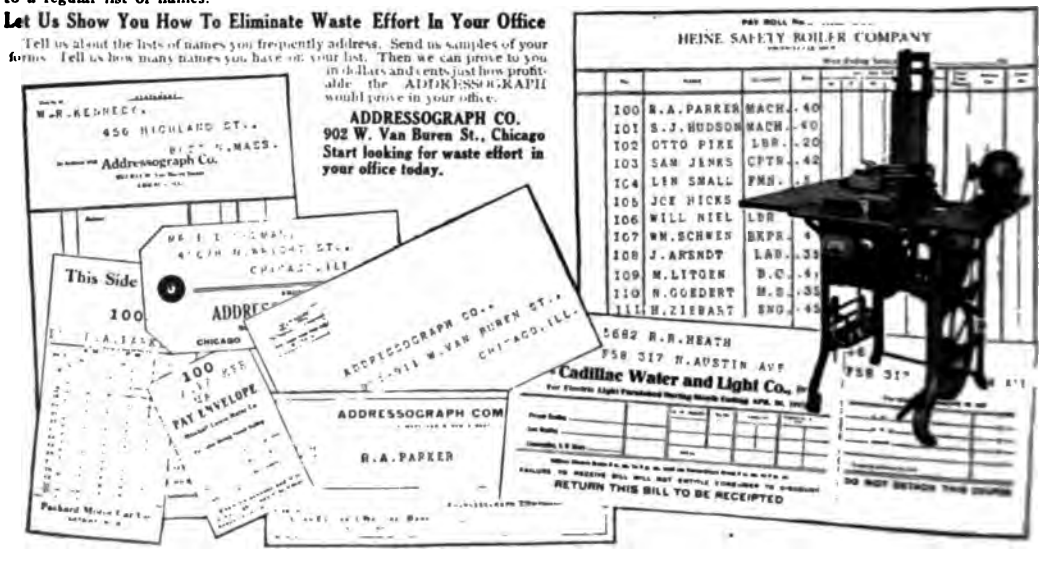
Start looking for waste effort in your office today.



Efficien

Welcome in the Factory — Locked ou. of the Office

It's a strange thing—this efficiency in the factory and inefficiency in the office.

Office work is nothing but a "manufacturing" of records, depending, like your work in the factory, on speed, accuracy and economy. And hands are as slow in the office as in the factory.

Yet, although the manufacturer welcomes every new speed-increasing device, the office—plods along in the old time "hand-made" way.

Why not do away with much of the time-killing, cost-increasing hand-work? And come up-to-date with the Addressograph?

In 244 lines of business—yours among them—the Addressograph has displaced hands in handling list of names—just as the typewriter has displaced them in writing letters.

For with the Addressograph, a boy can do in 60 minutes what it takes a high-priced clerk a day to do with a pen.

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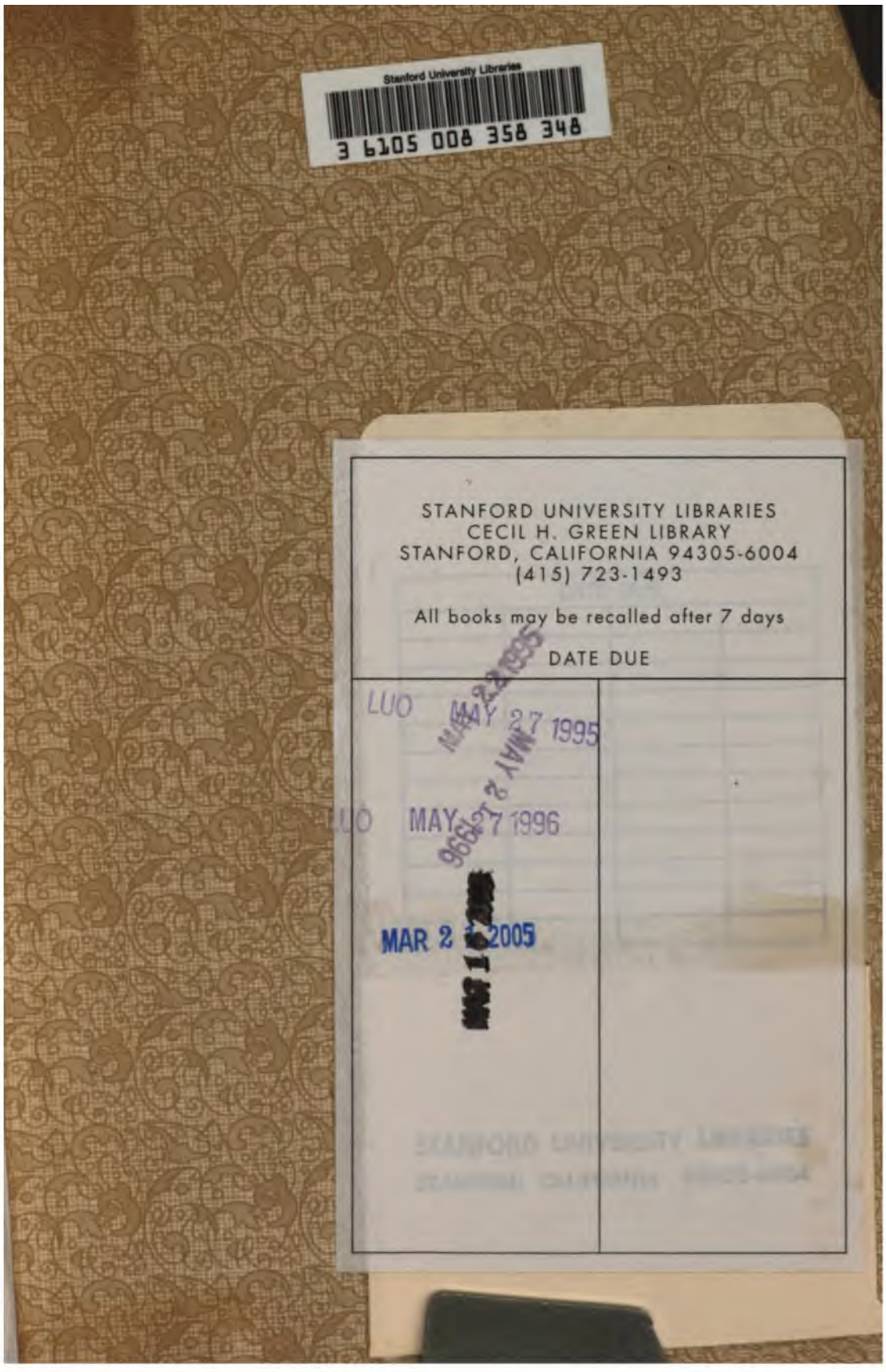
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